

Equitable Transportation Community (ETC) Explorer

ETC Explorer Technical Documentation

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Glossary and Acronyms

| Acronym | Definition |
|--------------|---|
| AAA | American Automobile Association |
| ACS | American Community Survey |
| BTS | Bureau of Transportation Statistics |
| CDC | Centers for Disease Control and Prevention |
| CES | Consumer Expenditure Survey |
| CMRA | Climate Mapping for Resilience and Adaptation |
| DHS | Department of Homeland Security |
| DOI | Department of the Interior |
| DOL | Department of Labor |
| USDOT | United States Department of Transportation |
| EJI | Environmental Justice Index |
| EJScreen | Environmental Justice Screening Tool |
| EPA | U.S. Environmental Protection Agency |
| ETC Explorer | Equitable Transportation Community Explorer |
| EVI | Environmental Vulnerability Index |
| FARS | Fatality Analysis Reporting System |
| FEMA | Federal Emergency Management Agency |
| FRS | Facility Registry Service |
| FRS | Federal Reporting System |
| FTA | Federal Transit Administration |
| GIS | Geographic Information System |
| HIFLD | Homeland Infrastructure Foundation-Level Data |
| HPMS | Highway Performance Monitoring System |
| HUC12 | Hydrologic Unit Code 12 |
| IPCC | Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change |
| MCDA | Multi-Criteria Decision Analysis |
| 1 | <u>l</u> |

| Multi-Resolution Land Characteristics |
|--|
| |
| National Center for Disaster Preparedness |
| Natural Hazard Risk Index |
| National Highway Traffic Safety Administration |
| National Land Cover Database |
| National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration |
| National Transit Database |
| Population Level Analysis and Community Estimates |
| Particulate Matter |
| Points of Interest |
| Representative Concentration Pathways |
| Risk Management Program |
| Statewide Transportation Improvement Programs |
| Topologically Integrated Geographic Encoding and Referencing |
| Transportation Improvement Programs |
| Toxic Release Inventory |
| Unlinked Passenger Trips |
| United States |
| United States Dollar |
| United States Geological Survey |
| Urbanized Areas |
| Watershed Index Online |
| |

Introduction

In January 2022, in support of the Justice40 Initiative, the Department of Transportation (Department) developed the Transportation Disadvantaged Census Tracts (Historically Disadvantaged Communities) tool which the Department is currently proposing to update and rebrand as the <u>United States Department of Transportation (USDOT) Equitable Transportation Community (ETC) Explorer</u>. The tool is an interactive web application that explores the cumulative burden disadvantaged communities experience resulting from underinvestment in transportation in the areas of Transportation Insecurity, Climate and Disaster Risk Burden, Environmental Burden, Health Vulnerability, and Social Vulnerability. It is designed to be effective in helping increase the understanding of how communities are experiencing transportation disadvantage at the local level. The Explorer uses newly available 2020 Census Tracts and data, adds additional indicators reflective of disadvantage related to lack of transportation investment and updates its methodology. In the Explorer individual indicators and datasets are combined to create a score for each component (Transportation Insecurity, Climate and Disaster Risk Burden, Environmental Burden, Health Vulnerability, and Social Vulnerability). The tool reflects the data in multiple ways.

- ETC Explorer- National Results is an interactive dashboard to allow users the ability to understand
 how a community or project area is experiencing transportation disadvantage compared to all other
 Census Tracts nationally across the five disadvantage component areas and forty indicators used to
 develop the five components. Popup Databoxes provide more specific data on Transportation
 Insecurity for each Census Tract.
- ETC Explorer- State Results is an interactive dashboard to allow users the ability to understand how a
 community or project area is experiencing transportation disadvantage compared to all other Census
 Tracts within a state across the five disadvantage component areas and forty indicators used to
 develop the five components. Popup Databoxes provide more specific data on Transportation
 Insecurity for each Census Tract.
- Transportation Insecurity Analysis Tool (TIAT) The Transportation Insecurity Analysis Tool visually
 displays the raw data for a select group of indicators at the state or national level, that reflect
 transportation insecurity. This application is an interactive mapping tool to understand where
 transportation insecurity is most acute in communities across the country.

This technical document provides an in-depth explanation of the data and techniques used to select the indicators and construct the indices.

Disadvantage

As set forth in Executive Order (EO) 14008 on *Tackling the Climate Crisis at Home and Abroad*, disadvantaged communities are those that are marginalized, underserved, and overburdened by pollution. Disadvantaged individuals or groups may be more likely to experience negative outcomes such as unemployment, poor health, or reduced access to services and opportunities. In the context of transportation, disadvantaged individuals or communities may also experience negative impacts from transportation sources, which can impact health, or receive fewer benefits from transportation services, which can limit their ability to access jobs, healthcare, education, and other essential services.

The ETC Explorer and Index use data and methods, including several related directly to transportation insecurity, to reflect how a community is experiencing disadvantage relative to transportation investments

¹ For more information, see here: <u>CEQ-CEJST-QandA.pdf</u> (whitehouse.gov)

and opportunities. There are several public sector indices and data sources that support the scoring schema and indicators incorporated here, including CDC's Environmental Justice Index (EJI), NOAA's Climate Mapping for Resilience and Adaptation (CMRA), FEMA's National Risk Index, and EPA's Smart Location Map among others; this index has been expanded to include specific indicators that relate to transportation insecurity. ^[1] This tool is designed to help increase the understanding of transportation disadvantage at the community level and prioritize general areas that have experienced historical disadvantage or lack of transportation access.

USDOT's Commitment

USDOT has a commitment to equity in its policies and programs. This includes ensuring that all communities have access to safe and reliable transportation options. Measuring how communities are experiencing disadvantage is a USDOT priority because it is a key aspect of ensuring that all communities have access to safe and reliable transportation options and identifying and addressing any disparities in transportation access. This tool aims to highlight places where burdens are most concentrated. USDOT is committed to providing equitable, accessible, and legally compliant services to everyone in every community.

Cumulative Impacts

Cumulative impacts describe the combined result of multiple environmental, social, or economic impacts. These impacts can be positive or negative and may unfold over time, across locations, or through various activities. The combined impacts can often have a more significant effect than the sum of individual impacts.² This cumulative approach provides a comprehensive understanding of how various factors interact to create and sustain disadvantages for individuals or groups. By examining cumulative impacts, decision-makers can identify the communities experiencing the highest combined burdens and begin to target interventions to best benefit communities.

Index Development

USDOT identifies transportation disadvantaged census tracts using a multi-component, cumulative burden framework that is designed to align with leading practices such as those used to create EJI. The updated methodology encompasses five key components: Transportation Insecurity, Climate and Disaster Risk Burden, Environmental Burden, Health Vulnerability, and Social Vulnerability. These components are either adapted from existing federal indices or are newly developed using federal data sources.

Health Vulnerability assesses the susceptibility of the population to health issues, such as diabetes, asthma, cancer, and mental health challenges, as well as access to medical care. Environmental Burden measures factors that may cause negative environmental impacts, such as pollution, waste management, and land use, on the local community. Social Vulnerability measures the extent to which the population is economically and socially vulnerable based on factors such as poverty, age, unemployment, and education. Transportation Insecurity measures the availability and affordability of transportation options and their effect on access to essential services and jobs. It also includes a measure of transportation safety. Lastly, Hazard and Climate Risk

^[1] EJI's homepage can be accessed here for more information on the tool, including technical documentation and the index: https://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/placeandhealth/eji/index.html.

² Lee, C. (2021). Another game changer in the making? Lessons from states advancing environmental justice through mapping and cumulative impact strategies. Envtl. L. Rep., 50, 10203.

Burden measures the population's exposure to hazards and the consequences of climate change, such as natural disasters and extreme weather events.

Index Use

USDOT has created an interactive mapping tool known as the ETC Explorer to assess the level of disadvantage of communities and project areas. This user-friendly tool displays the results of USDOT's efforts to measure disadvantage, and its breakdown by five key components. The Explorer allows users to easily view the index and select census tracts for analysis, gaining insight into the distribution of individual components and burden score on both the national and state level.

The ETC Explorer- Add Your Data (National and State Results) feature of the dashboard allows users to add their own data and create custom views of the DOT's ETC Explorer- National Results and -State Results maps, which can be exported.

Public Outreach & Engagement

USDOT began public outreach around Justice40 in the fall of 2021 with two webinars focused on gathering recommendations on data sources, measures of disadvantage, and measures of benefits. Stakeholders attending the listening sessions included attendees from think tanks, state agencies, local governments, and non-profits engaged in transportation. The feedback from these sessions helped USDOT to make decisions regarding the form and function of the first Historically Disadvantaged Communities tool and continues to inform USDOT's work on the ETC Explorer. Also in 2022, USDOT setup a dedicated email to answer ongoing questions related to Justice40 implementation.

In February 2023 USDOT published a Request for Information (RFI) in the Federal Register to collect feedback on the new Equitable Transportation Community (ETC) Explorer. A public webinar and presentations with key stakeholder groups were held reaching more than 2000 stakeholders. USDOT received 48 detailed responses, with 216 discrete asks for changes, via the Federal Rulemaking Portal along with live responses to survey questions during the public webinar and direct feedback from stakeholder groups.

USDOT's outreach has focused on transportation stakeholders in governmental and non-governmental organizations—groups that will be the primary users for the ETC Explorer.

USDOT plans to continue hosting listening sessions, training sessions, and other engagements following the publication of the updated ETC Explorer in June 2023. The ETC Explorer will undergo periodic updates as new data are released or updated. Questions or comments are welcome anytime via the email inbox at justice40@dot.gov.

Updates

Throughout the RFI period, USDOT received comments that the draft release of the index did not sufficiently emphasize transportation insecurity. Following the public comment period, USDOT conducted sensitivity and validity testing geared toward addressing these and other comments. Following testing and review, USDOT decided to assign the Transportation Insecurity component a double weight. Weighting of transportation in the final index score best fit the intentions and use case of the index. Additionally, popup databoxes have been added, which provide the raw data for a select group of indicators that reflect transportation insecurity, and the Transportation Insecurity Analysis Tool was developed which visually displays the data from the popup databoxes in an interactive mapping tool at the state and national level. The Tool allows communities to understand where transportation insecurity is most acute across the country. In addition to the new

functionality, USDOT also improved the data quality of the transportation cost burden indicator and added walking and driving distances to points of interest (POIs) within the transportation access indicator. These additions are discussed within the data sections below.

Methods

Summary

USDOT's Equitable Transportation Community Explorer is an interactive web application that explores the disadvantage communities experience, resulting from underinvestment in transportation, in the areas of Transportation Insecurity, Climate and Disaster Risk Burden, Environmental Burden, Health Vulnerability, and Social Vulnerability. The index computes cumulative disadvantage by normalizing indicators associated with disadvantage, summing the percentile ranks of these indicators into components, and then summing the percentile ranks of the sums of each component to determine an overall score.

Overview of Data

The Disadvantaged Community Index, which drives USDOT Equitable Transportation Community Explorer, is a composite measure that defines census tracts as being disadvantaged communities in the US based on several dimensions of disadvantage. The index is based on multiple publicly available government data sources that include indicators such as the percent of households without a car, average commute time, walkability index, frequency of transit services per square mile, jobs within a 45-minute drive, calculated average annual cost of transportation as a percent of household income, traffic fatalities, and air quality indicators like ozone and particulate matter 2.5 (PM_{2.5}) levels.

The index also considers socioeconomic indicators, such as poverty level, education, employment, housing, health, language proficiency, and age demographics, as well as data on disaster risk, climate change, and land use, such as estimated annualized loss due to disasters, increase in number of hot days, change in precipitation patterns, risk of coastal flooding, and impervious surface area. The aim of the index is to provide communities with the data to understand how they are experiencing transportation disadvantage, using multiple dimensions of disadvantage including transportation insecurity, social vulnerability, health vulnerability, environmental burden and climate and disaster risk burden.

The compilation of the index involved integrating data from various sources, which differ in format, type, source, completeness, units of measurement, and spatial and temporal resolution. To address these challenges, USDOT has created a system for harmonizing and standardizing these datasets. The system includes careful consideration of time and space misalignment between different datasets, as well as variable normalization, to ensure that the index provides a comprehensive definition of disadvantaged communities in the US.³

Census Tract Adjustments

The updated index was constructed using the latest available data, including 2015-2020 American Community Survey (ACS) 5-year estimates and Census Tracts drawn after the 2020 Census. The 2020 Census increased the total number of tracts by over 12,000 (an increase of more than 15%) and redrew many others resulting in different patterns of disadvantage especially in growing, urban areas. For datasets not yet available in 2020 Tracts, for example the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) Population Level Analysis and Community Estimates (PLACES), USDOT scaled data from 2010 to 2020 tracts using a relationship file provided

³ Within the index, tribal jurisdictions and US Territories receive disadvantage designation under M-21-28 Community definition: 'Agencies should define community as either a group of individuals living in geographic proximity to one another, or a geographically dispersed set of individuals (such as migrant workers or Native Americans), where either type of group experiences common conditions. Tribes may be prioritized as "disadvantaged communities" by USDOT regardless of the disadvantage status of the census tract in which they are located.

by the U.S. Census Bureau that showed which 2010 tract(s) corresponded to which 2020 tract(s). In cases where Census Tracts were combined, the percentage of the area from 2010 to 2020 was used to calculate a weighted average of the values at 2010 tract level to the 2020 tract. For example, if two tracts in 2010 make up one in 2020, but one makes up 99.8% of the area in 2020, each raw data point in the 2010 dataset was averaged but weighted according to the percent per tract. In the more common case where a 2010 tract was split into multiple tracts in 2020, the raw data values per variable were assigned to each corresponding 2020 tract.

The data used in this index comes from the raw Topologically Integrated Geographic Encoding and Referencing (TIGER)/Line with Selected Demographic and Economic Data Census Tract boundaries from 2020.⁴ However, the dashboard displays the view of the 1:500,000 *scaled* version. This was done to enhance usability and reduce load times. These tracts are substantially similar to standard Census Tracts; however, are simplified and so may have small differences than standard tracts when viewed at a local level.

Selection

Variables were selected for inclusion in the Index based on several criteria: 1) they had data that was regularly updated and available across all or most of the country, 2) they were part of the CDC Environmental Justice Index (EJI), or another widely used federal data source (e.g., the National Risk Index), 3) they represented a phenomenon critical to assessing transportation insecurity (e.g., transit frequency, transportation safety, or transportation cost burden), and/or 4) the variable enhanced our understanding of disadvantage (e.g., climate change estimates).

In the data selection process for the index, a comprehensive approach was taken to ensure the validity and significance of each indicator. The multi-step process for identifying problematic indicators in a spatial Multi-Criteria Decision Analysis (MCDA) began by examining the indicators based on various factors such as skew, variance, missingness, and modality. Skew was assessed to understand the representation of high or low values in the variable and determine if it was unbalanced. Variance was evaluated to determine the distribution of the variable and if it was centered around one value. Missingness was considered to understand the number of census tracts with missing values for the variable. Modality was evaluated to determine the number of peaks in the variable.

The next step involved comparisons of indicators based on correlation and Principal Component Analysis/Factor Analysis. Correlation was checked to identify and/or remove indicators that displayed it, as it violates the main assumption of a standard "good" model. Correlation was used to understand the relationship between the indicators and determine if they measure similar things. Principal Component Analysis and Factor Analysis were used to determine the contribution of some indicators to the final score.

Finally, maps were created to understand spatial variation and regional patterns. Clustering and hotspots were used to determine if the variable logically congregated around certain regions. Rural vs. urban patterns were used to understand if the variable followed patterns of population density. State-level patterns were used to determine if the variable had decent variation for each state. This process helped identify problematic indicators and a qualitative discussion by experts was then held to determine if these indicators should be included or excluded from the MCDA.

⁴ https://www.census.gov/geographies/mapping-files/time-series/geo/tiger-data.html

Model for National Results

The model used to create the overall score is displayed in **Error! Reference source not found.** (below). The model takes all the individual indicators and creates subcomponent indicators to clarify the main indicators key to understanding disadvantage. In components with composite indicators, the indicators of interest are normalized and summed to create a composite, which is used the same as a category or subcomponent indicator. The subcomponents are added, and normalized, to create the component score. The components are then percentile ranked, and each census tract receives a score for each component. The component scores are then added together, and percentile ranked to create the final disadvantage score for each tract. The final score is displayed in the index and dashboard as a percentile rank, for easy visualization.

For example, "No Personal Vehicle" is an indicator within a composite score. The raw data is taken and minmax normalized, and then summed with the other min-max normalized indicators within the composite. The composite is percentile ranked, then added to the other sub-components within Transportation Insecurity. That sum is percentile ranked once more to assign census tracts a component score for Transportation Insecurity. The component score is added to the other component scores, and the sum is percentile ranked once more, giving the tract a final index score, which is displayed in the dashboard. For indicators not included in a composite, like "Asthma", the raw data is min-max normalized, added to the other health components, and the sum is percentile ranked to create the Health Vulnerability component score, where the method proceeds as described above.

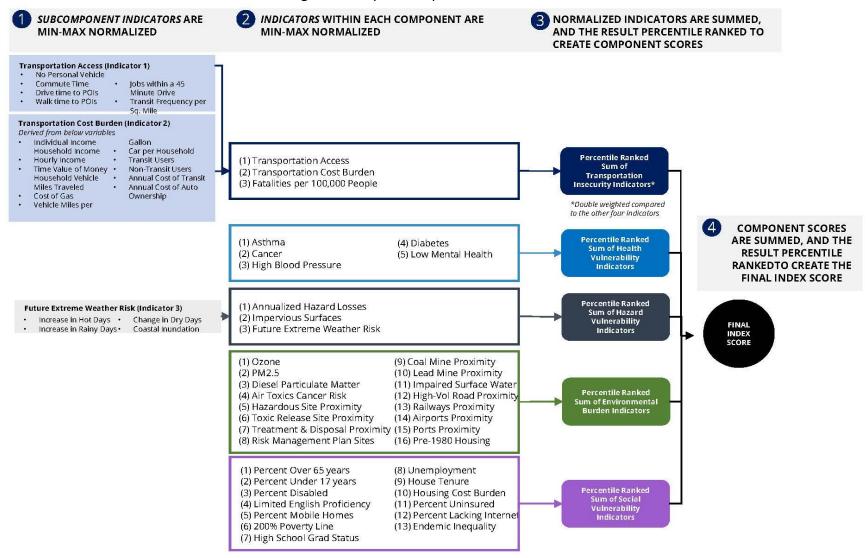
The Transportation Insecurity component has been double weighted following the public comment period.

Viewing Indicator Data in the ETC Explorer

The Explorer shows separate percentile rankings for each individual *Indicator* (bottom table). This allows users to explore the underlying data before it is combined into Component Scores. Since this data is percentile ranked and has not been combined into components, the <u>Indicator Scores are distinct from the Component Scores</u>. This is because the normalization method used to create components – min-max ranking – preserves the distribution of the data, while percentile ranking, displayed in the Indicator Score chart, smooths the distribution of the data.

DOT has chosen to show both Overall Component Scores and individual Indicator Rankings to give Explorer users as much visibility into the data as possible. Accordingly, each chart in the dashboard should be interpreted separately. The Component Scores chart provides information on cumulative burden within a component and the Indicator Scores chart a comparative, national ranking of individual indicators within the census tract.

Figure 1. Graphical Representation of Model



Scoring for National Results

USDOT employs a cumulative approach to defining disadvantage, which involves standardizing the data through normalization. The chosen normalization method is min-max scaling, transforming data into a standard range, 0 to 1, to enable a comparison and eliminate the effect of different units of measurement while preserving the distance between data points. The five components — Transportation Insecurity, Health Vulnerability, Environmental Burden, Social Vulnerability, and Climate and Disaster Risk Burden — are comprised by summing the ranked normalized indicators for each component. The result is a composite score that succinctly summarizes the data for each component.

USDOT then leverages percentile ranking to determine each Component Score. This statistical approach assigns a ranking, expressed as a percentile with 0 percentile as the lowest and 100^{th} percentile as the highest value, to each data point in a dataset based on its relative position compared to other data points. This ranking allows USDOT to gauge the relative performance of each component's composite score with respect to other components at the tract level. Summing up the ranked Component Scores (with Transportation Insecurity double weighted) results in the final composite score, which summarizes the overall data across all components. And finally, USDOT calculates the Final Index Score via percentile ranking on the final composite score, thus determining how the overall score of a given census tract compares to that of the other census tract and overall. This methodology enables USDOT to define disadvantage on multiple dimensions.

This methodology offers a deeper insight into the interactions between different factors that contribute to disadvantage. By combining min-max scaling and percentile ranking, USDOT is able to standardize the data and assign a relative position to each location for each component. DOT considers Census tracts to be "disadvantaged" in communities with a Final Index Score greater than 0.65 (65th percentile). USDOT considers communities as "disadvantaged" in a component or indicator if their percentile score is greater than 0.65 (65th percentile) in that area.

Model and Scoring for State Results

State results are calculated using the same methodology as the national results, with all the same statistical techniques applied as demonstrated in Figure 1. Graphical Representation of the Model (above). However, instead of ranking all census tracts across the country, state results only consider the census tracts within the particular state being analyzed. By doing so, the state results offer a more localized view of the data, highlighting the variation and patterns within a particular state. This is particularly useful for users who are interested in understanding the unique characteristics of specific regions within a state, and how they compare to other regions in the same state.

This feature allows the ETC Explorer and dashboard to function similarly to other leading state-level indices such as CalEnviroScreen.⁵ The option to explore only within-state variation is of interest to many users and will support a variety of use cases that may arise in the future.

Methodology for Transportation Insecurity and Access Tool (TIAT) Results

The TIAT has been developed as an interactive mapping tool that allows users to visually explore transportation insecurity in communities across the United States. The TIAT is a highly customizable tool that allows users to filter tracts by various raw indicators related to cost, access, and safety, without the

⁵ CalEnviroScreen can be accessed here: https://oehha.ca.gov/calenviroscreen.

normalization or percentile ranking used in other tabs. Users can filter the data by pre-set thresholds or enter their own, to gain a deeper understanding of the relationship between transportation insecurity and various factors such as MPO boundaries, alternative fueling stations, FARS data, transit routes, intercity bus routes, or any of the five Disadvantage Components from the national and state results tools.

The methodology for the TIAT follows the same data collection process as the national and state results tools but does not apply the statistical processing to the data. Preset thresholds were set for each indicator based on the quartile or quintile breakdown of the raw data for that indicator. Users are also able to add their own thresholds using the-less than, between or greater than fields offered for each indicator. By providing flexibility and detail, the TIAT enables users to understand where transportation insecurity is most acute in communities across the country. In addition, because users are able to set their own thresholds for indicators, the tool allows greater visibility into the data of interest on a more personal level. For a list of indicators presented within TIAT, and their respective categories, please refer to Table 10.

Data

The following sections provide an in-depth examination of the data used to develop the five components of disadvantage and their indicators. The aim is to give a comprehensive overview of the data used to create the index. The sections are organized by component and further categorized into groups of indicators. The categories serve to illustrate the thought process behind the index, and within each category, the reasoning for each indicator's inclusion is explained. The index contains raw data for each indicator, unless stated as a "calculation" indicator, which is a composite score derived from the indicators within. The categories are provided for easier reading and to highlight the types of disadvantages captured by the index and displayed in the dashboard. The component breakdown, including data sources and years, as well as the geography of the raw data and analysis done for each indicator are displayed in the tables found in Appendix 1.

Transportation Insecurity

The Transportation Insecurity component of the index is comprised of three measures: two composite measures, Transportation Cost Burden, and Transportation Access, and one standard measure of Transportation Safety. USDOT utilizes data from multiple sources such as the Census Bureau, USDOT, the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), and the Bureau of Labor Statistics, to measure transportation access in disadvantaged communities.

The Transportation Cost Burden and Transportation Access Burden are calculated by combining multiple factors that provide a representation of the transportation situation. The data is analyzed and transformed into a composite score for each indicator. In the final index, each indicator is presented as a single, distinct measure. For more information about the specific indicators used to measure Transportation Insecurity, please refer to *Table 3*.

Transportation Insecurity – Transportation Access

The Transportation Access composite variable incorporates automobile prevalence, average commute time, average walking and driving times to various POIs including grocery stores and medical facilities, and access to jobs and transit, measuring the level of access that communities have to transportation options and to needed services via transportation. This indicator is calculated by combining data from the Census Bureau (on commute time and vehicle ownership), U.S. EPA Smart Location Database (on jobs within a 45-minute drive, intersection density, and transit frequency per square mile), and distance from census tracts to selected points of interest. These indicators are normalized, summed, and then normalized again to create a sub-component score for Transportation Access Burden. Higher scores (closer to 1) indicate greater transportation access burden, while lower scores (closer to 0) indicate lower transportation access burden. Overall, this indicator provides a view of transportation challenges faced by communities and their impact on well-being and opportunities. Long commute times and limited access to personal vehicles can create significant barriers to employment, while high walkability and frequent public transit options can provide greater access to employment and resources.

Indicator: No Personal Vehicle

This indicator measures the percent of households that do not have access to a personal vehicle. The lack of access to personal transportation can restrict access to employment, healthcare, education, and other essential activities, negatively impacting the overall quality of life. This is particularly true in rural areas, where public transportation may be limited or unavailable.

Indicator: Average Commute Time to Work

This indicator quantifies how long people spend on average traveling to work. The longer the commute, the greater the financial burden on workers. Longer commutes can result in higher transportation costs, a lower quality of life, and less time for leisure, family, and personal pursuits. This has the potential to exacerbate economic disparities in low-income households and communities. Longer commutes have been linked to higher levels of stress and health concerns, according to research.⁶

Indicator: Peak Transit Frequency per Square Mile

This variable measures the number of transit options available in a specific area during peak transit times, quantified by the frequency of transit services offered per square mile (sourced from the EPA Smart Location Database, General Transit Feed Specification). The availability of transit options can greatly impact the quality of life for residents in a specific area. A well-developed transit system can provide access to jobs and can also improve mobility. On the other hand, a lack of transit options can lead to limited access to opportunities and exacerbate transportation insecurity. The frequency of transit services per square mile is therefore an important metric to consider when evaluating the overall transportation landscape of a specific area and identifying areas that may need improvement. This measure is taken as the inverse of peak transit frequency, to trigger disadvantage where census tracts have less frequent transit available.

Indicator: Jobs Within a 45-Minute Drive

This variable measures the availability of job opportunities within a 45-minute drive from a given location. This measure of time to jobs is considered a crucial factor in determining accessibility to employment and overall economic well-being of a community. The number of jobs within a 45-minute drive is an indicator of the ease of access to employment, which can influence career opportunities, income, and overall quality of life. This measure is taken as the inverse of the data, to trigger disadvantage where census tracts have fewer jobs within a 45-minute drive.

Indicator: Estimated Average Drive Time to POIs

Subject matter experts and stakeholders identified a variety of services and locations that are valuable to communities, and this indicator measures access to them. USDOT determined the estimated average driving time to the nearest two destinations of each POI category, which included grocery stores, medical facilities, adult education sites, and parks. Finally, the average drive time across all POI categories is calculated to create a single indicator. This was done since including each destination as a separate indicator would reduce this impact of other transportation access indicators, like commute time or transit frequency, on the Transportation Access component.

USDOT utilized Esri's Origin/Destination Matrix method with the Network Analyst Extension & Esri's routing network to calculate drive times in minutes from the origin to the nearest two destinations for each POI, using block group centroids. Data for grocery stores and medical facilities was sourced from Esri. Data for adult education and park locations was sourced from HIFLD. USDOT used HIFLD and open-source data where available and supplemented it with Esri data where necessary.

⁶ McMillan, G., & Hwang, S. (2015). The health effects of commuting: A systematic review of the literature. Social Science & Medicine, 125, 1-14. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2014.07.054

⁷ Krieger, J., Zabel, J., & Kaza, N. (2012). Automobility, urban form, and health inequities: A critical review. Journal of Planning Literature, 27(2), 121-138. https://doi.org/10.1177/0885412211432410

To aggregate modes, USDOT calculated the average of all block group values and assigned them to the tract level. Table 9 provides a full list of codes for each POI category. USDOT conducted these calculations based on average Tuesday traffic at 8am locally.

Indicator: Estimated Average Walk Time to POIs

Subject matter experts and stakeholders identified a variety of services and locations that are valuable to communities, and this indicator measures access to them. USDOT determined the estimated average walking time to the nearest two destinations of each POI category, which included grocery stores, medical facilities, adult education sites, and parks. Finally, the average walk time across all POI categories is calculated to create a single indicator. This was done since including each destination as a separate indicator would reduce this impact of other transportation access indicators, like commute time or transit frequency, on the Transportation Access component.

USDOT utilized Esri's Origin/Destination Matrix method with the Network Analyst Extension & Esri's routing network to calculate walking times in minutes, using 2020 block group centroids to determine the distance from the origin to the nearest two destinations. Data for grocery stores and medical facilities was sourced from Esri, while data for adult education and park locations was sourced from HIFLD. USDOT used HIFLD and open-source data, where available, and supplemented it with Esri data where necessary.

To aggregate modes, USDOT calculated the average of all block group values and assigned them to the tract level. Table 9 provides a full list of codes for each POI category.

Transportation Insecurity – Transportation Cost

Transportation Cost Burden_measures the cost of transportation relative to the respective options and median area income. This variable is included in the index measuring disadvantage as it is an indicator of transportation insecurity. It reflects the cost of transportation as a percentage of household income.

Indicator: Transportation Cost Burden – Calculation

A component of Justice 40 Disadvantaged Communities Index is identifying communities with a high transportation cost burden. This means communities whose transportation costs are high relative to their median income. The transportation costs are derived by calculating the primary costs associated with a household means of transportation: auto costs, transit cost, and commuting time costs. The methods used for calculating these costs are explained in the following sections.

The costs of owning and operating an auto can differ in areas around the country. Basic overhead, or fixed costs, for vehicles such as insurance, maintenance, financing, and the price of new or used vehicles can vary across the country. To capture these differences, the fixed auto costs are taken from the annual Consumer Expenditure Survey (CES).⁸ This survey provides specific costs that are attributable to auto ownership and operations. This data is collected at the Census Division geographic level, shown in Figure 2, and reflects the differences in pricing that may be caused by local regulations, logistics issues, and other supply and demand considerations.

 $^{{}^8\,} The\, Consumer\, Expenditure\, Survey\, data\, can\, be\, found\, here:\, \underline{https://www.bls.gov/cex/tables/geographic/mean/cu-division-2-year-average-2021.pdf}$

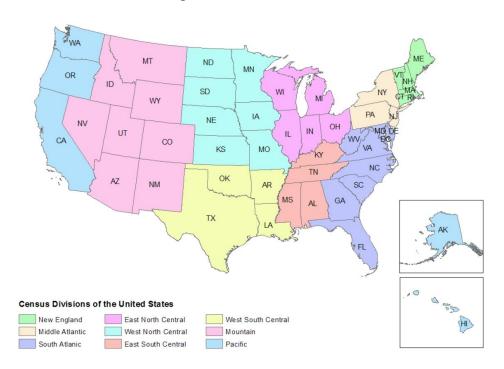


Figure 2. Census Divisions

The CES quantifies the average annual expenditure of "consumer units" for various vehicle related costs. The survey's methodology defines a "consumer unit" as:

- All members of a particular household who are related by blood, marriage, adoption, or other legal arrangements;
- A person living alone or sharing a household with others or living as a roomer in a private home or lodging house or in permanent living quarters in a hotel or motel, but who is financially independent; or,
- Two or more persons living together who use their income to make joint expenditure decisions.

For the purposes of calculating the auto costs, it is assumed that a "Consumer Unit" is equal to a Census household. Therefore, auto costs represented in the CES are assumed to be per household averages for the various auto related costs. The costs are broken down into three main groups, vehicle costs, gas and fuel costs, and other vehicle costs. *Table 1* shows the captured transportation costs in the CES.

Table 1. CES Transportation Costs

| Total Transportation Cost | | |
|--|--|--|
| Vehicle Purchases (net outlay) | | |
| New Cars and Trucks | | |
| Used Cars and Trucks | | |
| Other Vehicles | | |
| Other Vehicle Expenses | | |
| Vehicle Finance Charges | | |
| Maintenance and repairs | | |
| Vehicle Rental, leases licenses, and other charges | | |
| Vehicle Insurance | | |
| Public and other transportation ⁹ | | |

Based on these categories, the summation of vehicle purchases, and other vehicle expenses are used as representative costs per household for auto ownership "fixed costs."

The variable cost, gasoline, and fuel are calculated using the average state gasoline prices, average miles per gallon, and average household vehicle miles traveled. The total cost of autos is displayed in *Equation 1*.

Equation 1. Total Cost of Autos

CES Vehicle Purchases + CES Other Fixed Vehicle Expenses + (Gallon of Gas Prices X Mile per Gallon X Household VMT)

One cost that all commuters incur is the "lost" time due to traveling to and from work. Although this travel is considered a necessity, it is still a loss of valuable time that could be used doing something else. In some instances, travel time may exhibit lifestyle choice such as wealthier commuters trading longer commute times for quality-of-life issues. For this reason, this metric should not be directly comparable without context.

USDOT has assessed a standardized value of time for transportation based on trip purpose within their Benefit Cost Analysis Guidance. The value of time depends on the type of purpose for traveling. For instance, leisure and business travel often have very different values. For more a more generalized use, USDOT has assessed a standardized value of time for transportation by trip purpose. These values are displayed in *Table 2*.

⁹ See methodology for calculating transit costs.

¹⁰ The Benefit Cost Analysis Guidance can be found here: https://www.transportation.gov/sites/dot.gov/files/2023-01/Benefit%20Cost%20Analysis%20Guidance%202023%20Update.pdf.

Table 2. Standardized Value of Time for Transportation by Trip Purpose

| | Value of |
|--|----------|
| Purpose | Time |
| Personal | \$17.00 |
| Business | \$31.90 |
| All Purposes | \$18.80 |
| Walking, Cycling, Waiting, Standing, and Transfer Time | \$34.00 |

To calculate the time value of commuters, the average daily commute time, which is expressed in minutes, is converted to annual hourly commute time then multiplied by USDOT Value of time for personal travel. This is then normalized by households to estimate the travel time per household costs, as shown in *Equation 2*.

Equation 2. Time Value of Commuters

((Tract Average Daily Commute Time X 50 X 5)/60) X USDOT Value of Time
Tract Households

This methodology does not factor in reliability or time loss due to waiting due for late, early, or slow transit, nor does this methodology account for congestion and traffic issues for commuters who drive. However, it assumes that these issues are intrinsic to the total commute times reported in the Census.

Unlike auto costs, national transit costs are more diverse in terms of regional availability and transit system pricing mechanisms. More locally, transit costs often rely on proximity to major destinations such as urban cores, the type of mode being used (commuter train, bus, light rail, ferry, or other), passenger frequency (monthly or weekly ticket discounts and peak and off-peak pricing), and passenger attributes (senior and student discounts).

As Table 2 shows, the CES contains an expense component that captures public transportation. However, the public transportation expenses are not exclusively provided but rather grouped with other transportation expenses. The largest of these other expenses is air transportation. For this reason, using the CES public and other transportation expenses would not provide a realistic cost for transit.

Instead, the approach utilizes the Federal Transit Administration's (FTA) National Transit Database (NTD). This database collects financial and operational data from transit providers across the country. Using this database, the passenger, and operational revenues from transit agencies in designated Census Urbanized Areas (UZA) will be used. These revenues will be set against their respective UZA unlinked passenger trips (UPTs). Unlinked passenger trips are essentially boarding passengers on a bus, train, ferry, or other mode of transit. Unlinked trips are measured by counting the number of times a passenger boards a vehicle, no matter how many vehicles they use to travel from their origin to their destination. The product of the passenger and operational revenues and UPT is the average trip cost for the UZA.

Although this method yielded UPT prices that were consistent, some UZAs exhibited abnormally high or low prices. In these cases, the UPT price was constrained. The price constraint was one half of the standard

deviation above or below the median UPT price. If a UPT price broke the threshold, it was assumed the revenue or UPT levels were faulty, and the national mean price was used instead. The UZA geographies are combined with Census tracts to define areas that have access to transit systems. Although all the UZAs were assigned to tracts, only UZAs that are accounted for in the NTD are used. Areas outside of the UZAs not reporting transit use a national mean.

To estimate the amount of household spending on transit, the average cost of per UPT was annualized, then doubled as most people using public transportation take two trips per day (one to a destination in the morning and one home in late afternoon or evening), as shown in *Equation 3.*¹² The annualized UPT cost was then applied to the number of transit commuters in each tract. The product was then divided by the total number of households in the tract to provide a per household transit spending estimate, as shown in *Equation 4*.

Equation 3. UZA Cost per Unlinked Passenger Trip

$$UZA\ Cost\ per\ Unlinked\ Passenger\ Trip = \frac{UZA\ Passenger\ and\ Operational\ Revenue}{UZA\ Unlinked\ Passenger\ Trips}$$

From this estimate, the tract level transit commuters were applied.

Equation 4. Transit Spending per Household

Transit Spending per Household $= \frac{UZA\ Cost\ per\ Unlinked\ Passenger\ Trip\ X\ Tract\ Transit\ Commuter}{Tract\ Households}$

This approach assumes that transit use is present in tracts that have transit users. It also assumes a uniformity in transit pricing and use across the UZA area. As data on all transit users in a tract is not collected, transit commuters were used as a proxy to measure transit use in a tract, as the most consistent data is gathered on them. To account for noncommuter transit trips, which make up 62.5% of total trips according to the 2017 NHTS, the transit spending per household was multiplied by 2.67.¹³

Therefore, the total transportation cost burden is reflected in Equation 5.

Equation 5. Transportation Cost Burden

 $\frac{\textit{Transportation Cost Burden}}{\textit{Average Household + Transit Spending per Household}} = \frac{\textit{Auto Cost Per Household + Travel Time Per Household + Transit Spending per Household}}{\textit{Average Household Income}}$

¹¹ This assumption also accounts for passengers who may drive to rail, bus, or other transit stations within the UZA.

¹² This assumption is derived from work done at the following: https://www.bts.dot.gov/learn-about-bts-and-our-work/statistical-methods-and-policies/public-transit-ridership/

¹³ According to a 2017 APTA report using NHTS data, transit commuter trips are only 37.45% of all commuter trips. This would then assume that the rest of the trips are non-commuter. By only calculating the commuter trips, the model would omit roughly 63% of the trip costs. To make up for that we use a multiplier that is: 1/37.45, which equals 2.67. We apply the multiplier to the existing commuter trip cost to get the "full transit" cost. Again, we assume that the presence of transit commuters reflect access to transit and propensity to use transit.

Transportation Insecurity – Transportation Safety:

Measuring transportation safety is crucial in understanding access. It highlights areas that are disadvantaged due to unsafe conditions and identifies regions with high crash rates, which can be improved through additional or improved infrastructure and safety measures.

Indicator: Transportation-Related Fatalities

This indicator measures the number of fatalities per capita (per 100,000 persons) that occur in transportation-related crashes as recorded by the Fatality Analysis Reporting System (FARS), within the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA). Fatalities were calculated using the 2017-2021 FARS data by plotting the latitude and longitude of the crash and calculating the total fatalities by tract. This indicator provides valuable insight into the level of traffic safety in each community and can be used to identify areas with higher rates of transportation-related fatalities.

Environmental Burden

The Environmental Burden component of the index includes indicators measuring factors such as the built environment, pollution, and hazardous facility exposure to define disadvantaged communities. This is accomplished through the measurement of aspects of transportation infrastructure burden and other relevant factors. These environmental burdens can have far-reaching consequences such as health disparities, negative educational outcomes, and economic hardship. The Environmental Burden indicators are calculated using data from EPA's Environmental Justice Screening Tool (EJScreen) 2022. More detail on the indicators can be found in

Table 4.

Environmental Burden – Air Pollution

Air pollution is a common factor in communities facing environmental inequities, and it has been linked to multiple health disparities. People living in areas with high air pollution levels are more likely to suffer from asthma, cancer, and other diseases, which can adversely affect their quality of life.¹⁴ Furthermore, air pollution is often linked to poverty and other social disadvantages, as those in lower socio-economic classes are more likely to live in areas with poor air quality.¹⁵

Indicator: Ozone Level

The Ozone Level Indicator measures the concentration of ozone in the air. Exposure to high levels of ozone can lead to negative health outcomes, including increased risk of respiratory and cardiovascular disease. Both short-term and long-term exposure can contribute to air pollution-related illnesses and death. Ozone is generated from human activities such as the burning of fossil fuels and chemical reactions in the atmosphere. Transportation activities contribute to this factor by releasing compounds that interact to create ozone.

Indicator: PM 2.5 Level

The PM 2.5 Level indicator quantifies the presence of fine PM having a diameter of 2.5 micrometers or less in the air. Exposure to high levels of PM 2.5 may cause irritation of the eyes, nose, throat, and lungs, as well as an increased risk of acute cardiovascular events. Long-term exposure has been associated with increased death rates from a variety of diseases, including cancer and cardiovascular disease. ¹⁹ Among the causes of exposure to PM 2.5 are vehicle emissions and industrial activities, meaning areas with high levels of PM 2.5 may also be experiencing other types of disadvantages.

Environmental Burden – Hazardous Sites

This category of indicators considers the number of hazardous sites near communities that may negatively impact human health. These indicators are included in the index measuring disadvantage as they are indicators of environmental burden, potentially posing a risk to the health and well-being of residents.

Point data was retrieved for non-abandoned coal mine and non-abandoned lead mine locations from the Mine Safety Administration. A 1-mile buffer was created around each site, following the EJI methodology.²⁰ Census tracts were intersected with the buffered area and the intersecting area was calculated, in square miles. The table of calculated areas was joined with Census tracts by Gravity for Earth, Ocean, and Ice Dynamics (GEOID) and the percent of tract, calculated as the intersection area divided by census tract area multiplied by 100, was appended to the table.

¹⁴ Hart JE, Liao X, Hong B, Puett RC, Yanosky JD, Suh H, Kioumourtzoglou MA, Spiegelman D, Laden F. The association of long-term exposure to PM2.5 on all-cause mortality in the Nurses' Health Study and the impact of measurement-error correction. Environ Health. 2015 May 1;14:38. doi: 10.1186/s12940-015-0027-6.

¹⁵ Rauh, V.A., Landrigan, P.J. and Claudio, L., 2008. Housing and health: intersection of poverty and environmental exposures. Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences, 1136(1), pp.276-288.

¹⁶ Devlin, R.B., Duncan, K.E., Jardim, M., Schmitt, M.T., Rappold, A.G. and Diaz-Sanchez, D., 2012. Controlled exposure of healthy young volunteers to ozone causes cardiovascular effects. Circulation, 126(1), pp.104-111.

¹⁷ Raza, A., Dahlquist, M., Lind, T. and Ljungman, P.L., 2018. Susceptibility to short-term ozone exposure and cardiovascular and respiratory mortality by previous hospitalizations. Environmental Health, 17(1), pp.1-9.

¹⁸ Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) (2022). "Ground-Level Ozone Basics." EPA, https://www.epa.gov/ground-level-ozone-pollution/ground-level-ozone-basics.

¹⁹ Liu X, Mubarik S, Wang F, Yu Y, Wang Y, Shi F, Wen H, Yu C. Lung Cancer Death Attributable to Long-Term Ambient Particulate Matter (PM2.5) Exposure in East Asian Countries During 1990-2019. Front Med (Lausanne). 2021 Oct 15;8:742076. doi: 10.3389/fmed.2021.742076.

²⁰ CDC - ATSDR (2022). "Technical Documentation for the Environmental Justice Index 2022." ATSDR, https://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/placeandhealth/eji/docs/EJI-2022-Documentation.pdf.

Point data was also retrieved for Hazardous Sites, Toxics Release Sites, Treatment, Storage and Disposal sites, and Risk Management Plan Sites from the EPA FRS (Facility Registry Service). The process of creating buffers, finding intersections with Census tracts, and calculating the percent of area for each site was followed.

USDOT used a 1-mile buffer for all hazardous site indicators, including: Hazardous Sites, Toxics Release Sites, Risk Management Program Sites, Treatment and Disposal Facilities Sites, Coal Mines, Lead Mines. The 1-mile buffer distance was selected to provide a measure of exposure to sites that is close enough to identify health risks, yet far enough away to assess the overall impact of Toxics Release Inventory (TRI) sites on communities. It is the leading practice to use 1 mile and is the same buffer distance used in the EJI methodology to assess the proximity of communities to hazardous sites and facilities.²¹

Indicator: Diesel PM in the Air

This indicator measures the concentration of tiny particles in the air that come from diesel engine exhaust. Exposure to these particles has been linked to respiratory and cardiovascular disease, as well as premature death.²² Sources of diesel PM include diesel-powered vehicles, heavy machinery, and some power plants. Communities that have high levels of transportation and industrial activity may experience a disproportionate burden of diesel PM exposure, contributing to disparities in health and well-being.²³

Indicator: Air Toxics Cancer Risk

This indicator measures the potential impact of air pollutants on cancer risk in a community. Exposure to certain air pollutants can increase the likelihood of developing cancer. These pollutants may come from various sources, including industrial facilities and motor vehicles. High levels of air pollutants can lead to a higher cancer risk in a community, contributing to disparities in health outcomes and quality of life.²⁴ The data for Air Toxics Cancer Risk came from EJScreen's 2022 data.

Indicator: Hazardous Sites Proximity

This variable assesses the proximity of communities to hazardous waste sites and facilities which report to the Federal Reporting System (FRS), as facilities that generate, treat, store, or dispose of hazardous waste in the United States. These facilities must submit a report every two years detailing their management activities and information about the hazardous waste they generate. Living close to such sites has been linked to higher incidences of health issues and environmental hazards. Exposure to toxic substances can have significant impacts on health and well-being, particularly for children and other vulnerable populations. The proximity of these sites can also contribute to environmental degradation and long-term health impacts, leading to a cycle of community disadvantage. ²⁶

²¹ Chakraborty J, Maantay JA, Brender JD. Disproportionate proximity to environmental health hazards: methods, models, and measurement. Am J Public Health. 2011 Dec;101 Suppl 1(Suppl 1):S27-36. doi: 10.2105/AJPH.2010.300109

²² Krivoshto, J.R., Albertson, T., and Derlet, R. (2008). The Toxicity of Diesel Exhaust: Implications for Primary Care. The Journal of the American Board of Family Medicine January 2008, 21 (1) 55-62; DOI: https://doi.org/10.3122/jabfm.2008.01.070139.

²³ Karagulian, F., Belis, C.A., Dora, C.F.C., Prüss-Ustün, A.M., Bonjour, S., Adair-Rohani, H. and Amann, M., 2015. Contributions to cities' ambient particulate matter (PM): A systematic review of local source contributions at global level. Atmospheric environment, 120, pp.475-483.

²⁴ Turner, M.C., Andersen, Z.J., Baccarelli, A., Diver, W.R., Gapstur, S.M., Pope III, C.A., Prada, D., Samet, J., Thurston, G. and Cohen, A., 2020. Outdoor air pollution and cancer: An overview of the current evidence and public health recommendations. CA: a cancer journal for clinicians, 70(6), pp.460-479.

²⁵ Vrijheid M (2000) Health effects of residence near hazardous waste landfill sites: a review of epidemiologic literature. Environ Health Perspect 108:101–112.

²⁶ Lynch, M.J. The Ecological Distribution of Community Advantage and Disadvantage: Power Structures, Political Economy, Communities, and Green-State Crime and Justice. Crit Crim 24, 247–262 (2016). https://doi.org/10.1007/s10612-016-9313-z.

Indicator: Toxics Release Sites Proximity

The Toxics Release Sites Proximity indicator measures the proximity of communities to facilities listed under the EPA's Toxics Release Inventory (TRI).²⁷ These facilities must have 10 or more full-time employees and either manufacture or use more than a specified amount of toxic chemicals. Being close to these sites has been linked to increased cancer risks.²⁸ Additionally, living close to TRI sites and other noxious land uses can result in increased stress from noise and odor.

Indicator: Risk Management Program Site Proximity

The Risk Management Program (RMP) Site Proximity Indicator assesses the proximity of communities to facilities that are part of the EPA's (RMP). These facilities handle highly toxic or flammable chemicals and must have plans in place for responding to worst-case scenarios such as fires or explosions. Living near these sites has been linked to negative health effects, including increased risk of cancer and respiratory illness from toxic air pollution exposure, as well as potential direct harm from chemical releases.²⁹ The EPA estimates that there are around 150 annual unplanned releases at RMP facilities, which can result in fatalities, injuries, evacuations, property damage, and environmental harm.³⁰

Indicator: Treatment and Disposal Facilities Proximity

The Treatment and Disposal Facilities Proximity indicator measures the proximity of communities to sites responsible for handling hazardous waste.³¹ These sites may generate volatile substances that can become aerosolized or contaminate groundwater, leading to health problems such as increased hospitalization rates for diseases like stroke, diabetes, and heart disease.³² Living close to hazardous waste sites can also have a negative impact on a community's well-being and health.

Indicator: Coal Mines Proximity

The Coal Mine Proximity Indicator is included to measure exposures associated with coal mining that can negatively affect health due to high air pollution concentrations caused by mining activities. Studies have found that air pollution from coal mining can lead to increased risk of health problems, including lung and kidney disease, heart disease, and lung cancer.³³ Respiratory health can also be impaired, with increased rates of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease reported. Air pollution from coal mining has also been linked to low birth weight in pregnant women.³⁴ Coal slurry, the practice of disposing of liquid coal waste underground, can also contaminate well and groundwater, potentially affecting drinking water sources for nearby residents.

Indicator: Lead Mines Proximity

The Lead Mines Proximity Indicator assesses the potential impact of lead mines on local communities. Lead mining is known to release contaminated soil and dust into the environment, posing a health risk, especially to

²⁷ Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) (2023). "Toxics Release Inventory (TRI) Program." EPA, https://www.epa.gov/toxics-release-inventory-tri-program."

²⁸ Hertwich, E.G., Mateles, S.F., Pease, W.S. and McKone, T.E., 2001. Human toxicity potentials for life-cycle assessment and toxics release inventory risk screening. Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry: An International Journal, 20(4), pp.928-939.

²⁹ Kleindorfer, P., et.al. (2003). Accident Epidemiology and the U.S. Chemical Industry: Accident History and Worst-Case Data from RMP*Info. Risk Analysis, 23(5), 865-881

³⁰ U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. (n.d.). Risk management program. https://www.epa.gov/rmp

³¹ For further reading, see here: https://www.epa.gov/hwpermitting/frequent-questions-about-treatment-storage-and-disposal-facilities-tsdfs

³² Misra, V. & Pandey, S.D. (2005). Hazardous waste, impact on health and environment for development of better waste management strategies in future in India, 31(3), 417-431.

³³ Laney, A. S., & Weissman, D. N. (2014). Respiratory diseases caused by coal mine dust. Journal of occupational and environmental medicine/American College of Occupational and Environmental Medicine, 56(0 10), S18.

³⁴ Ahern, M., Mullett, M., MacKay, K., & Hamilton, C. (2011). Residence in coal-mining areas and low-birth-weight outcomes. Maternal and child health journal, 15, 974-979.

children. Lead is a toxic heavy metal that can cause severe health problems, including learning disabilities, developmental delays, and behavioral problems in children.³⁵ In communities close to lead mines, elevated levels of lead in the blood have been reported. Long-term exposure to lead can also lead to serious health problems in adults, including high blood pressure, infertility, and nerve damage. The dangers of lead exposure make it crucial to consider the proximity of lead mines when assessing the health and wellbeing of local communities.

Environmental Burden: Transportation Infrastructure

The Transportation Infrastructure Burden category evaluates the impact of transportation facilities like highways, airports, and seaports on the surrounding environment and community well-being. Proximity to these facilities can result in increased noise pollution, air pollution, and other negative effects on the environment, creating a burden on nearby communities. This burden also considers the aging housing stock of the community which can indicate greater risks to human health than newer housing. To quantify this burden, data was collected on high-volume roads, railways, airports, and ports. The data on high-volume roads was sourced from the Highway Performance Monitoring System (HPMS), and only major highways, interstates, and major arterials with functional classes 1-3 were included. The railway and airport locations were obtained from the Bureau of Transportation Statistics (BTS) geospatial dataset.³⁶ USDOT imported all the spatial datasets into ArcGIS Pro and created buffers around the roads and railways. A 1-mile buffer was created around the high-volume roads and railways, a 3-mile buffer around the ports, and a 5-mile buffer around the airports.³⁷ USDOT then used the intersect tool to find sections of Census tracts that intersected with these buffers and calculated the square miles of each intersection. The data was joined by GEOID and the percentage of each Census tract area within each buffer was calculated and added to the index dataset.

Indicator: High Volume Roads Proximity:

This variable is included in the index to reflect the proximity of a community to high-volume roads, which may lead to increased noise, air pollution, and other negative impacts on the environment. Proximity to high-volume roads, including interstates, can lead to elevated levels of harmful air pollutants, including ozone and diesel PM.³⁸ This exposure has been linked to respiratory problems, childhood cancers, adverse birth outcomes, and increased mortality.³⁹ In addition to air pollution, proximity to high-volume roads can also result in water pollution due to runoff of heavy metals and other pollutants into nearby soils and waters. Finally, noise pollution from traffic has been linked to increased stress, cardiovascular disease, and adverse mental health outcomes.⁴⁰

Indicator: Railways Proximity

The Indicator of Railways Proximity highlights the potential impact of being located close to railway lines on the health and well-being of a community. The presence of railway lines can contribute to significant noise pollution which can disturb sleep, increase stress levels, and raise diastolic blood pressure.⁴¹ This type of noise

³⁵ Bellinger, D. C. (2008). Very low lead exposures and children's neurodevelopment. Current opinion in pediatrics, 20(2), 172-177.

³⁶ Bureau of Transportation Statistics (BTS) (2023). "GeoData." BTS - Geographical Information, https://geodata.bts.gov/

³⁷ CDC - ATSDR (2022). "Technical Documentation for the Environmental Justice Index 2022." ATSDR, https://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/placeandhealth/eji/docs/EJI-2022-Documentation.pdf.

³⁸ Zhang, K., & Batterman, S. (2013). Air pollution and health risks due to vehicle traffic. Science of the total Environment, 450, 307-316.

³⁹ Anderson, H. R. (2009). Air pollution and mortality: A history. Atmospheric Environment, 43(1), 142-152.

⁴⁰ Münzel, T., Sørensen, M., & Daiber, A. (2021). Transportation noise pollution and cardiovascular disease. Nature Reviews Cardiology, 18(9), 619-636.

⁴¹ Eriksson, C., Nilsson, M. E., Willers, S. M., Gidhagen, L., Bellander, T., & Pershagen, G. (2012). Traffic noise and cardiovascular health in Sweden: The roadside study. Noise and Health, 14(59), 140.

pollution is among the most disruptive of all transportation-related sources of noise and can be exacerbated by additional noise pollution from traffic.

Indicator: Airports Proximity

Airports are known to have a significant impact on the environment, particularly in terms of noise pollution. The loud sound of airplane take-offs and landings, along with air traffic control communications, can cause sleep disturbance, stress, and annoyance to nearby residents. Additionally, airports can also cause contamination of air, soil, and groundwater due to various factors such as chemical spills from storage tanks, the use of hazardous chemicals in firefighting and rescue training, and runoff from storms that can infiltrate harmful chemicals into the soil and groundwater.⁴²

Indicator: Ports Proximity

This variable assesses the proximity of a community to ports. Proximity to ports has been linked to increased air and noise pollution, as well as the potential for chemical spills.⁴³ These factors can negatively impact the health and well-being of residents, particularly those with pre-existing health conditions. In addition, communities near ports may experience decreased property values and a reduced quality of life.

Indicator: Pre-1980 Housing

This variable is included in the index to reflect the percent of housing units built before 1980, which may have a higher risk of exposure to lead-based paint and other environmental hazards. The presence of older housing, built before 1980, is a predictor of potential lead exposure. Lead-based paint was banned in 1978, but housing built before that time often still contains underlying layers of the hazardous material.⁴⁴ Chipping or flaking of paint can expose these layers and pose a risk to inhabitants, particularly children. In addition to lead-based paint, pre-1980 housing may also contain other environmental hazards, such as asbestos, which can pose serious health risks.

Environmental Burden – Water Pollution

This variable measures the degree of water pollution by evaluating the level of contamination present in bodies of water. Impaired water surfaces indicate the presence of pollutants that can have negative impacts on the environment and human health. To create this indicator, USDOT retrieved impaired water data from EPA Watershed Index Online (WSIO) watershed boundary features, joined them to Hydrologic Unit Code 12-digit (HUC12) classified polygons, a geographic system used to classify and sub-divide watersheds in the United States) and then imported the spatial file into Aeronautical Reconnaissance Coverage Geographic Information System (ArcGIS) Pro.

Indicator: Impaired Surface Water

This variable is included in the index to reflect the quality of the surface water, which may be impacted by pollutants and other environmental hazards. Impaired water has a variety of negative effects on individuals and communities, including health and recreation limitations. Communities with impaired water may experience higher levels of exposure and potential health risks. High levels of water pollution can result from a

⁴² Nunes, L. M., Zhu, Y. G., Stigter, T. Y., Monteiro, J. P., & Teixeira, M. R. (2011). Environmental impacts on soil and groundwater at airports: origin, contaminants of concern and environmental risks. Journal of Environmental Monitoring, 13(11), 3026-3039.

⁴³ Mueller, D., Uibel, S., Takemura, M., Klingelhoefer, D., & Groneberg, D. A. (2011). Ships, ports and particulate air pollution-an analysis of recent studies. Journal of Occupational Medicine and Toxicology, 6(1), 1-6.

⁴⁴ Environmental Protection Agency. (2017). Lead in paint, dust, and soil.

variety of sources, including industry, agriculture, and urban runoff. This indicator refers to the count of bodies of water that are considered "impaired" within a census tract. An impaired body of water is one that does not meet water quality standards for designated uses, such as fishing or swimming, as set by the state or tribe with jurisdiction over the water.

Health Vulnerability

The Health Vulnerability category assesses the increased prevalence of health conditions that may result from exposure to air, noise, and water pollution, as well as lifestyle factors such as poor walkability, car dependency, and long commute times. It reflects the frequency of these health conditions within a community. The data for the Health Vulnerability indicators is obtained from the CDC PLACES, which includes modeled estimates for several health conditions, and the hospital proximity data comes from the ACS and Homeland Security. The data, which is available in the CDC PLACES 2020 Release at the 2010 tract level, was transformed to 2020 tracts based on the 2010 tract coverage area. In cases of two merged 2010 tracts, USDOT calculated a weighted average based on the percentage of area merged. When a 2010 tract was split into different 2020 tracts, the 2020 tracts were assigned the value from the 2010 tract. Further information on the Health Vulnerability indicators can be found in Table 5.

Indicator: Prevalence of Asthma

The Asthma Prevalence Indicator is a measure of the impact of environmental factors on respiratory health. Asthma is a chronic disease of the airways and outdoor air pollution is a known trigger for asthma attacks and worsening of symptoms. Exposure to pollutants such as PM_{2.5}, ozone, and diesel particulate matter can lead to inflammation of the airways, exacerbating asthma symptoms. ⁴⁵ Asthma rates are often higher in disadvantaged communities due to greater exposure to these environmental hazards. This highlights the importance of environmental health disparities.

Indicator: Prevalence of Cancer

The Cancer Prevalence Indicator measures the cumulative impact of a variety of factors on community health and disadvantage. Long-term exposure to air pollution is associated with an increased risk of cancer, including lung cancer, liver cancer, and pediatric lymphomas. ⁴⁶ Air pollutants such as PM_{2.5}, ozone, and others have been linked to increased morbidity and mortality in cancer patients. ⁴⁷ In communities near transportation hubs, the increased levels of air pollution can lead to a higher prevalence of cancer, further exacerbating the health disparities faced by disadvantaged communities.

Indicator: Prevalence of High Blood Pressure

This indicator measures the prevalence of high blood pressure, a common measure of cardiovascular health. Studies have found that exposure to air pollutants such as PM_{2.5}, ozone, and PM, as well as noise pollution from traffic, can increase the risk of developing high blood pressure and hypertension.⁴⁸ Long-term exposure

⁴⁵ Guarnieri, M., & Balmes, J. R. (2014). Outdoor air pollution and asthma. The Lancet, 383(9928), 1581-1592.

⁴⁶ Turner, M. C., Andersen, Z. J., Baccarelli, A., Diver, W. R., Gapstur, S. M., Pope III, C. A., ... & Cohen, A. (2020). Outdoor air pollution and cancer: An overview of the current evidence and public health recommendations. CA: a cancer journal for clinicians, 70(6), 460-479.

⁴⁷ Minina, V. I., Sinitsky, M. Y., Druzhinin, V. G., Fucic, A., Bakanova, M. L., Ryzhkova, A. V., ... & Titov, V. A. (2018). Chromosome aberrations in peripheral blood lymphocytes of lung cancer patients exposed to radon and air pollution. European Journal of Cancer Prevention, 27(1), 6-12.

⁴⁸ Foraster, M., Künzli, N., Aguilera, I., Rivera, M., Agis, D., Vila, J., Bouso, L., Deltell, A., Marrugat, J., Ramos, R. and Sunyer, J., 2014. High blood pressure and long-term exposure to indoor noise and air pollution from road traffic. Environmental health perspectives, 122(11), pp.1193-1200.

to these pollutants has been linked to elevated blood pressure and an increased risk of cardiovascular disease, including heart attack, stroke, and coronary heart disease.⁴⁹

Indicator: Prevalence of Diabetes

This indicator assesses the number of people in a community who have been diagnosed with diabetes. This diagnosis can be impacted or exacerbated by a variety of factors, such as air pollution and its effect on the risk of developing Type 2 diabetes mellitus. Exposure to PM_{2.5} in the air, which can be produced by sources such as automobiles, can cause oxidative stress and inflammation. These factors can disrupt insulin signaling and contribute to diabetes development. Furthermore, studies have found a link between proximity to hazardous sites and land use and an increased risk of hospitalization in diabetics. Such negative health outcomes can be especially pronounced in low-income and minority communities.

Indicator: Prevalence of Low Mental Health

This indicator measures the number of people in each community who have poor mental health, as measured by CDC PLACES.⁵² This self-reported measure indicates people reporting that for 14 or more days during the past 30 days during their mental health was "not good." Negative environmental quality, such as pollution, has been shown to play an important role in poor mental health. Living near industrial activity, for example, has been shown to have a negative impact on mental health, particularly among racial/ethnic minority populations and those living in poverty.⁵³ Furthermore, studies have found a strong link between environmental pollution and an increase in the prevalence of psychiatric disorders.⁵⁴ Mental health is also linked to physical health and active mobility. In communities with limited transportation options, a lack of opportunities for active mobility can contribute to poor physical health, which in turn can have a negative impact on mental health.

Social Vulnerability

The set of indicators aims to identify populations that are at a higher risk due to unfavorable social conditions. These indicators are derived from the ACS (2015-2020). The percentage of renters is calculated by dividing the number of rental properties by the total number of housing units. The housing cost burden is determined by calculating the percentage of households who spend over 30% of their income on housing, following leading practice in similar indices. The data for individuals without insurance and internet access is directly obtained from the US Census Bureau. The percentage of the population without a high school diploma is also sourced from the 2015-2020 ACS. Further information about the Transportation Insecurity indicators can be found in Table 6.

⁴⁹ Giorgini, P., Di Giosia, P., Grassi, D., Rubenfire, M., D Brook, R. and Ferri, C., 2016. Air pollution exposure and blood pressure: an updated review of the literature. Current pharmaceutical design, 22(1), pp.28-51.

⁵⁰ Lawal, A. O. (2017). Air particulate matter induced oxidative stress and inflammation in cardiovascular disease and atherosclerosis: The role of Nrf2 and AhR-mediated pathways. Toxicology letters, 270, 88-95.

⁵¹ Kouznetsova, M., Huang, X., Ma, J., Lessner, L. and Carpenter, D.O., 2007. Increased rate of hospitalization for diabetes and residential proximity of hazardous waste sites. Environmental Health Perspectives, 115(1), pp.75-79.

⁵² Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) (2021). "Health Status." CDC - Places, https://www.cdc.gov/places/measure-definitions/health-status/index.html#General-health

⁵³Downey, L., & Van Willigen, M. (2005). Environmental stressors: the mental health impacts of living near industrial activity. Journal of health and social behavior, 46(3), 289-305.

⁵⁴ Chen, S., Oliva, P., & Zhang, P. (2018). Air pollution and mental health: evidence from China (No. w24686). National Bureau of Economic Research.

⁵⁵ U.S. Census Bureau (2022). "Housing Costs Burden." Census Bureau Library, https://www.census.gov/library/stories/2022/12/housing-costs-burden.html.

⁵⁶ CDC - ATSDR (2022). "Technical Documentation for the Environmental Justice Index 2022." ATSDR, https://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/placeandhealth/eji/docs/EJI-2022-Documentation.pdf.

Social Vulnerability – Socioeconomic Status

The Socioeconomic Status category measures educational attainment, poverty, housing tenure, access to broadband, and housing cost burden within a community.

Indicator: 200% Poverty Line

This variable is included in the index measuring disadvantage as it is an indicator of socio-economic vulnerability, reflecting percent of the population living at or below 200% of the federal poverty line. A community's ability to influence environmental decisions may be hampered by a lack of financial means, which could result in a concentration of contaminated sites. A lack of access to healthcare and behavioral factors like chronic stress make low-income populations more prone to poor health outcomes, and community members in low-income neighborhoods are more likely to experience adverse impacts of air pollution in their children's health.⁵⁷

Indicator: People with No High School Diploma

This variable is included in the index to measure levels of educational attainment. It reflects the proportion of the population that does not have a high school diploma, which can have a negative impact on their ability to access job opportunities and higher wages, as well as their ability to navigate information about laws and resources.

Indicator: Unemployment

This variable is included in the index to measure the amount of unemployment in a community. It reflects the proportion of the population that is unemployed. A lack of financial resources and social capital also allows for stigma and a following lack of influence in decision-making within communities. Unemployment is also associated with health conditions deriving from stress.⁵⁸ The percent of unemployment was captured from ACS 2015-2020 Census tables.

Indicator: House Tenure

This indicator assesses Social Vulnerability by measuring the proportion of a community's population that rents their home. Renting a home is a significant factor that can influence an individual's ability to secure stable, affordable housing, which can have far-reaching consequences for a community's overall health and well-being. Homeownership is frequently associated with greater social capital and involvement in environmental decision-making. This can result in significant disparities in transportation access and mobility, limiting opportunities for employment, education, and recreation.

Indicator: Housing Cost Burden

The Housing Cost Burden Indicator measures the proportion of a population in a household that spends more than 30% of their income on housing costs. The burden of housing costs has been linked to a number of negative outcomes, including worse physical and mental health, delays in preventative care, and poorer educational and developmental outcomes for children.⁵⁹ This metric is critical for understanding a population's Social Vulnerability and assessing a community's ability to withstand disasters or difficult times. When people spend a large portion of their income on housing, they have fewer resources to invest in other necessities like

⁵⁷ Perera, F., & Nadeau, K. (2022). Climate change, fossil-fuel pollution, and children's health. New England Journal of Medicine, 386(24), 2303-2314...

⁵⁸ Bartley, M. (1994). Unemployment and ill health: understanding the relationship. Journal of Epidemiology & Community Health, 48(4), 333-337.

⁵⁹ Weitzman, M., Baten, A., Rosenthal, D. G., Hoshino, R., Tohn, E., & Jacobs, D. E. (2013). Housing and child health. Current Problems in Pediatric and Adolescent Health Care, 43(8), 187-224.

food, healthcare, and transportation. As a result, households may be unable to purchase cars or pay for public transportation, severely limiting their access to education, employment, and other essential services.

Indicator: Uninsured Percentage

This indicator measures the percentage of people who lack health insurance in the community and is used to assess economic and health vulnerability. Lack of health insurance can be a significant barrier to accessing healthcare, with serious consequences for individuals' and communities' health and well-being. Uninsured people frequently face financial difficulties and are unable to obtain preventative care, which can result in medical problems and adverse environmental events. ⁶⁰ Furthermore, uninsured people may tend to put off seeking medical treatment due to financial concerns, reducing their chances of receiving appropriate and timely care. This lack of mobility can lead to a reduction in access to healthcare services as well as social and economic opportunities, further constraining communities.

Indicator: Lack of Internet Access

This indicator highlights a crucial aspect of Social Vulnerability as it reflects the portion of the population that lacks internet access and its consequences. The absence of internet access hampers an individual's ability to seek job opportunities, education, and other essential services, leading to a hindrance in their participation in decision-making processes and staying informed about environmental issues in their community. This can also result in social isolation and exclusion of marginalized groups. In case of environmental emergencies, lack of internet access can act as a major hindrance for communication and outreach, compromising the community's well-being. Therefore, access to internet is not just a matter of convenience but a key factor in determining a community's quality of life and overall prosperity.

Indicator: Endemic Inequality

This indicator is a measure of Social Vulnerability because it reflects the level of inequality within a community. The Gini index is a statistical measure of inequality within a population. It ranges from 0 to 1, with 0 indicating perfect equality (everyone has the same income) and 1 indicating perfect inequality (one person has all the income). The Gini index is widely used to measure income inequality, but it can also be used to measure inequality in other areas such as wealth, health, education, and opportunities. High levels of inequality as measured by the Gini index can indicate that a significant portion of the population is struggling to meet basic needs and access essential resources, while a small portion of the population is enjoying significant benefits and privileges. Endogenous inequality can make it difficult for certain groups to access job opportunities, education, and other essential services, resulting in increased poverty. Endogenous inequality has been linked to a variety of social issues, including poor health outcomes, educational disparities, and high crime rates, a decrease in trust and social cohesion, and a lower quality of life. Furthermore, it can result in a lack of access to public transportation or other modes of transportation, limiting access to opportunities and affecting a community's ability to respond to environmental risks and disasters. All of these factors contribute to further disparities in outcomes and can contribute to a cycle of poverty and inequality.

⁶⁰ Duron, V. P., Monaghan, S. F., Connolly, M. D., Gregg, S. C., Stephen, A. H., Adams Jr, C. A., ... & Heffernan, D. S. (2012). Undiagnosed medical comorbidities in the uninsured: a significant predictor of mortality following trauma. Journal of trauma and acute care surgery, 73(5), 1093-1099.

⁶¹ Wilson, S., Huston, M., & Mujahid, M. (2008). How planning and zoning contribute to inequitable development, neighborhood health, and environmental injustice, 1(4), 211-216.

⁶² Neckerman, K.M. and Torche, F., 2007. Inequality: Causes and consequences. Annu. Rev. Sociol., 33, pp.335-357.

Social Vulnerability – Household Characteristics

This category of indicators measures age, disability status, and English proficiency by household. All indicator data within household characteristics is pulled directly from ACS data. This category also assesses the state of housing in a particular area, which plays a crucial role in determining the level of disadvantage in a community. Housing is a basic necessity, and the type of housing an individual lives in has a direct impact on their quality of life, including access to transportation and mobility. This indicator is therefore significant as it sheds light on the underlying circumstances that shape a resident's daily experiences and opportunities.

Indicator: Population Over 65

This indicator uses census data to calculate the proportion of elderly people in a census tract. This is an important consideration when assessing Social Vulnerability, as older populations frequently face barriers to healthcare and other essential services. A larger elderly population can result in higher service costs and a greater demand for resources. Older people are more likely to be socially isolated, which can limit their ability to participate in community processes and decision-making. Furthermore, age-related physiological changes, such as decreased immune function and the accumulation of oxidative stress from a lifetime of exposures, can make them more vulnerable to the negative health effects of environmental pollution. ⁶³ As a result, when assessing environmental health risks and working to ensure that older populations have access to essential services, it is critical to consider the proportion of elderly people in a community.

Indicator: Population Under 17

This indicator measures the proportion of young people in a community. Because people under 17 are more vulnerable to environmental and health issues, their concentration in a community population is used as an indicator. Children are more susceptible to environmental pollutants due to their rapid growth and higher metabolism. Outdoor play, hand-to-mouth activities, and higher breathing rates increase environmental pollution exposure. Environmental hazards also harm children more. Air pollution causes respiratory, cardiovascular, and developmental issues, and children near busy roads are at risk of respiratory and cardiovascular diseases from vehicle air pollution. Toxic chemicals in food, water, and older buildings can also cause increased risk of neurological damage, developmental issues, and behavioral issues specifically to children. Additionally, young people may lack the resources and knowledge to influence policy and decision-making, given their non-voting status.

Indicator: Disability

This variable reflects the percentage of the population who has a disability. A variety of factors including built environments and transportation infrastructure can result in inaccessibility to essential services and resources such as healthcare, transportation, and employment for people with disabilities. People with a disability face numerous challenges in their daily lives and are frequently marginalized and disadvantaged in society. Aside from limited access to healthcare, people with disabilities face mobility and transportation barriers, which can

⁶³ Fernandez, C. I., Collazo, J., Bauza, Y., Castellanos, M. R., & Lopez, O. (2004). Environmental enrichment-behavior-oxidative stress interactions in the aged rat: issues for a therapeutic approach in human aging. Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences, 1019(1), 53-57.

⁶⁴ Sly, P. D., & Flack, F. (2008). Susceptibility of children to environmental pollutants. Annals of the new York Academy of Sciences, 1140(1), 163-183.

⁶⁵ Ciccone, G., Forastiere, F., Agabiti, N., Biggeri, A., Bisanti, L., Chellini, E., ... & Viegi, G. (1998). Road traffic and adverse respiratory effects in children. SIDRIA Collaborative Group. Occupational and environmental medicine, 55(11), 771-778..

⁶⁶ Rauh, V.A. and Margolis, A.E., 2016. Research review: environmental exposures, neurodevelopment, and child mental health–new paradigms for the study of brain and behavioral effects. Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 57(7), pp.775-793.

limit their ability to access work, education, and other necessities.⁶⁷ Lack of transportation options and accessible public spaces can also contribute to decreased physical activity and increased sedentary behavior, which can exacerbate health problems and reduce quality of life even further.⁶⁸ People with disabilities are frequently disproportionately affected during disasters and have greater difficulty accessing emergency services, evacuation centers, and other resources. Furthermore, certain disabilities are linked to increased physiological susceptibility to pollution, particularly air pollution.⁶⁹

Indicator: Limited English Proficiency

This indicator calculates the proportion of the population that faces language proficiency barriers, limiting their access to education and job opportunities. Language barriers can make it difficult for community members to fully participate in important environmental conversations and decision-making processes. As a result, there may be a lack of representation and exclusion from critical discourse. Furthermore, limited English proficiency can result in a lack of access to information, as environmental news and reports are frequently only published in English. Because emergency information is frequently communicated only in English, non-English speaking communities are vulnerable and lack access to critical information needed to stay safe.⁷⁰ This variable is an important factor in determining a community's Social Vulnerability and the impact of language barriers.

Indicator: Mobile Homes

This variable reflects the proportion of the population that lives in mobile homes, which can have a negative impact on their ability to access stable and affordable housing. Because of zoning laws and negative stereotypes, mobile homes are frequently located in low-value areas and communities. These communities often house farm workers and migrant laborers who may not have access to affordable housing options and who lack the ability to influence local environmental policy as they are beholden to landowners. Poor construction and energy inefficiency in mobile homes can lead to negative health effects such as increased exposure to air pollution and extreme heat, and other environmental hazards, such as higher rates of water contamination and soil erosion due to inadequate drainage systems, further compromising the well-being of residents. Page 12.73

Climate and Disaster Risk Burden

This category measures the current and future risks to a geography from climate and natural disasters, based on potential losses from existing hazard exposure and vulnerability. More detail on the Transportation Insecurity indicators can be found in Table 7.

⁶⁷ Bascom, G.W. and Christensen, K.M., 2017. The impacts of limited transportation access on persons with disabilities' social participation. Journal of Transport & Health, 7, pp.227-234.

⁶⁸ Titchkosky, T., 2011. The question of access: Disability, space, meaning. University of Toronto Press.

⁶⁹ Gao, T., Wang, X.C., Chen, R., Ngo, H.H. and Guo, W., 2015. Disability adjusted life year (DALY): A useful tool for quantitative assessment of environmental pollution. Science of the Total Environment, 511, pp.268-287.

⁷⁰ Meischke, H., Chavez, D., Bradley, S., Rea, T. and Eisenberg, M., 2010. Emergency communications with limited-English-proficiency populations. Prehospital Emergency Care, 14(2), pp.265-271.

⁷¹ Holden, C. (2021). Bitter harvest: housing conditions of migrant and seasonal farmworkers. In The Human Cost of Food (pp. 169-195). University of Texas Press.

⁷² Spengler, J.D. and Sexton, K., 1983. Indoor air pollution: a public health perspective. Science, 221(4605), pp.9-17.

⁷³ Pierce, G. and Jimenez, S., 2015. Unreliable water access in US mobile homes: evidence from the American Housing Survey. Housing Policy Debate, 25(4), pp.739-753.

Climate and Disaster Risk Burden – Annualized Disaster Losses

This category aims to indicate the severity of current-day or future climate and natural disaster risks to a geography. By measuring potential losses from current hazard exposure and vulnerability, the index can help highlight communities already experiencing climate burdens, which indicates disadvantage.

Indicator: Annualized Losses due to Hazards

This indicator measures the economic impact of natural disasters on a community through a calculation of annualized losses based on hazards. This variable is included in the index of disadvantage because it emphasizes the burden faced by communities vulnerable to natural disasters such as earthquakes, hurricanes, and floods. Natural disasters can cause significant financial losses by causing significant damage to homes, businesses, and infrastructure. These losses can have long-term consequences for a community's ability to obtain necessities, maintain a stable living environment, and recover from a disaster. The Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA) Natural Risk Index provides data for this indicator, which is commonly used in environmental vulnerability indices such as the FEMA Environmental Vulnerability Index (EVI) and the National Center for Disaster Preparedness's (NCDP) Natural Hazard Risk Index (NHRI).

Climate and Disaster Risk Burden – Future Extreme Weather Risks

This category assesses the impacts of climate change, including changes in heat and precipitation levels and the concentration of developed/impermeable surfaces. The data was first collected in 2010 tracts and then matched to 2020 tracts. The indicators for future hazards, including Extreme Heat, Extreme Precipitation, Drought, and Coastal Inundation, were derived from the Climate Mapping for Resilience and Adaptation (CMRA) (National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) and Department of the Interior (DOI)), and compared with historical averages to mid-century projections using the "business as usual" Representatives Concentration Pathways (RCP) 8.5 model. Extreme Heat was determined as the difference in the number of days with temperatures above 90 degrees, while Extreme Precipitation was calculated as the difference in the annual number of days with precipitation exceeding the 99th percentile. Drought was calculated as the percentage change in the annual number of dry days by mid-century, and Coastal Inundation represented the percentage of the tract projected to be submerged by a 0.5m sea level rise by 2100. The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) developed four RCPs, and IPCC RCP 8.5 is one of them. It serves as a representation of a high-end, business-as-usual emissions scenario where the rampant increase of greenhouse gas emissions continues with limited to no attempts of mitigation. RCP 8.5 is deemed as a worst-case scenario in climate change projections and impact assessments, designed to predict potential consequences of continued high emissions and the related risks to the global community.⁷⁵

Indicator: Increase in Excessive Heat

This indicator measures the community's susceptibility to the effects of heatwaves. Rising temperatures because of climate change have increased the frequency and severity of heatwaves in many regions, making it an important factor in assessing community vulnerability. Heat-related illnesses, such as heat stroke and heat exhaustion, are becoming more of a concern in many communities, and they can be especially dangerous for vulnerable populations, such as the elderly and children. Heatwaves' impact on public health can also lead to

⁷⁴ Raschky, P.A., 2008. Institutions and the losses from natural disasters. Natural hazards and earth system sciences, 8(4), pp.627-634.

⁷⁵ IPCC. (2013). Climate Change 2013: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. Cambridge University Press.

increased healthcare costs, putting additional strain on already vulnerable communities.⁷⁶ Furthermore, heatwaves can cause power outages, resulting in a loss of access to essential services and potentially exacerbating the situation for affected populations.

Indicator: Increase in Excessive Rain

This indicator measures the impact of heavy precipitation events on a community, including the negative effects on the ability of the community to access necessities and maintain a stable living environment. This indicator is an important consideration in determining the level of environmental burden in a community. Excessive rain can have a variety of environmental and social consequences, including flooding, landslides, infrastructure and property damage, and reduced access to essential services.⁷⁷ These effects can be especially severe in already disadvantaged communities, such as those with limited resources for disaster preparedness and response or limited transportation options. Excessive rain can also exacerbate other environmental issues, such as increased air pollution from increased transportation and energy use, and decreased access to clean water supplies due to flooding contamination.⁷⁸

Indicator: Drought

The Drought Indicator is an important factor in measuring community disadvantage because it reflects the impact of a community's inability to access necessities and maintain a stable living environment due to a prolonged lack of rainfall. Drought is a natural hazard that can have serious consequences for communities, especially those that rely heavily on agriculture or other water-dependent industries. Drought can reduce crop yields, resulting in food insecurity and economic hardship. It can also cause water scarcity, limiting access to safe drinking, hygiene, and irrigation water.^{79,80} This has the potential to have far-reaching consequences for public health and the local economy. Communities may be forced to relocate to areas with more reliable water sources in some cases, resulting in displacement and further disruption to daily life.

Indicator: Coastal Inundation

This indicator assesses the potential harm that coastal flooding could cause to a community's access to essential needs and its ability to maintain a secure living environment. The indicator uses a 0.5-meter sea level rise by 2100 as the benchmark for this indicator, as sea level rise is expected to increase the frequency and severity of coastal flooding. The 0.5-meter rise in sea level by 2100 is based on the IPCC's RCP 8.5 scenario as mentioned above, emphasizing the potential impact of rising sea levels on coastal communities. The indicator provides insight into areas that are susceptible to coastal flooding and their level of vulnerability. It gives a comprehensive understanding of how a rising sea level could impact transportation and mobility, public health, and public infrastructure in a community.

⁷⁶ Cheng, J., Xu, Z., Bambrick, H., Su, H., Tong, S. and Hu, W., 2018. Heatwave and elderly mortality: An evaluation of death burden and health costs considering short-term mortality displacement. Environment international, 115, pp.334-342.

⁷⁷ Perry, C.A., 2000. Significant floods in the United States during the 20th century: USGS measures a century of floods (Vol. 24). US Department of the Interior, US Geological Survey.

⁷⁸ Charron, D.F., Thomas, M.K., Waltner-Toews, D., Aramini, J.J., Edge, T., Kent, R.A., Maarouf, A.R. and Wilson, J., 2004. Vulnerability of waterborne diseases to climate change in Canada: a review. Journal of Toxicology and Environmental Health, Part A, 67(20-22), pp.1667-1677.

⁷⁹ Feinstein, L., Phurisamban, R., Ford, A., Tyler, C. and Crawford, A., 2017. Drought and equity in California. Pacific Institute, p.80.

⁸⁰ Calow, R.C., MacDonald, A.M., Nicol, A.L. and Robins, N.S., 2010. Ground water security and drought in Africa: linking availability, access, and demand. Groundwater, 48(2), pp.246-256.

Indicator: Future Extreme Weather Risk – Calculation

The Future Extreme Weather Risk Indicator evaluates community vulnerability to extreme weather risk. It measures the following indicators: Extreme Heat, Extreme Precipitation, Drought, and Coastal Inundation. These indicators are normalized, summed, and then normalized again to create a sub-component score for Future Extreme Weather Risk. Higher scores (closer to 1) indicate greater future risk, while lower scores (closer to 0) indicate lower future risk.

Climate and Disaster Risk Burden – Impervious Surfaces (from Land Cover)

This indicator measures the environmental burden on a particular community to help analyze community disadvantage in the context of climate change, transportation, mobility, and health. Impervious surfaces, such as roads and parking lots, can have a variety of negative consequences, especially in communities that are already disproportionately exposed to environmental burdens. These surfaces generate and amplify heat islands, resulting in poor air quality and an increased risk of heat-related illnesses and death. This indicator is derived from the United States Geological Survey (USGS) Multi-Resolution Land Characteristics (MRLC) Consortium's National Land Cover Database (NLCD) 2019 product and aids in understanding how communities are exposed to heat islands and lack access to transportation options.

Indicator: Impervious Surfaces

This variable is included in the index measuring disadvantage as it is an indicator of increased climate burden. It reflects the impact of heat islands on a community and can have a negative impact on public health and increase the risk of heat-related illnesses. The data for this indicator comes from the USGS MRLC Consortium, within the NLCD 2019 Impervious Products.

Indicator: Impervious Surfaces – Calculation

This indicator calculates the 2019 impervious surface by U.S. Census tract in 2020, based on the NLCD. The census shapefile was then reduced to only the tract codes and geometry, to reduce the size of the file. The code then proceeded to run a zonal statistic, mean calculation, on the overlaid data.

⁸¹ Laaidi, K., Zeghnoun, A., Dousset, B., Bretin, P., Vandentorren, S., Giraudet, E. and Beaudeau, P., 2012. The impact of heat islands on mortality in Paris during the August 2003 heat wave. Environmental health perspectives, 120(2), pp.254-259.

Limitations and Considerations

USDOT's methodology measures neighborhood disadvantage. The ArcGIS dashboard facilitates stakeholder communication and data comparison, while component selection, normalization, and percentile ranking allow decision makers to factor in relative level of disadvantage where appropriate. The data, methodologies, and visualization tool have both strengths and limitations, discussed below.

Data

The Department of Transportation's (USDOT) methodology for measuring community disadvantage utilizes several components to determine a community's overall score. The components used include Transportation Insecurity, Health Vulnerability, Environmental Burden, Social Vulnerability, and Climate and Disaster Risk Burden. Each component is designed to capture various aspects of disadvantage and contribute to the overall score, allowing USDOT to understand the relative position of each community in terms of multiple layers of disadvantage.

The selection of these components provides a comprehensive approach to the complex interplay of various factors. An advantage to this approach is the ability to look at multiple factors, allowing communities to dive into the areas they deem as priorities. However, it should be noted that this method may not fully capture the multifaceted nature of disadvantage as it related to transportation. Some limitations of the data utilized in USDOT's methodology include the unknown missing data and metrics that cannot be easily measured. This impacts the accuracy of the results, as these factors may have a significant impact on the overall score.

In order to deal with missing data USDOT has taken specific measures. Alaska and Hawaii are calculated separately from the rest of the nation for their index scores, particularly due to the significant missing data in the Environmental Burden component for those states. This approach enhances the accuracy of the outcome by avoiding any distortion caused by missing data.

Where missing data is present (all data, except Alaska and Hawaii, have less than 5% missingness), the contiguous-mean interpolation method is employed by census tract. This method assigns the mean value of contiguous tracts to the missing data in a census tract, thereby providing a robust estimation of the missing data, while minimizing errors. This method is well-established in geographical data analysis and has demonstrated success in similar applications. In cases where a census tract with missing data does not have any neighboring tracts with complete data, the missing data will remain missing. It should be noted that this interpolation method may also fill in missing data for areas where it is logically unlikely to have any data, such as predominantly park areas. Thus, it is crucial to consider the underlying geographies when interpreting the resulting national index score.

However, there may still be concerns over the missing data in the current version of the data affecting local understanding. This limitation of the model is expected to improve with the availability of better and more complete data. To ensure transparency, Table 8 provides missingness analyses and descriptions for identification purposes.

By taking these steps, USDOT aims to bolster the accuracy and credibility of the results and to better comprehend community disadvantage and the relative position of each community in terms of multiple layers of disadvantage. The results of the contiguous-mean interpolation, as well as the separate calculation for Alaska and Hawaii, are available within the index files for further review.

Scale – Temporal and Spatial Misalignment

In this index and tool, we include census tract-level data, point-level data, county-level data, state-level data, etc. In other words, the data sources used are not always aligned in space. This means we may be generalizing the term "disadvantage" across populations that are in fact experiencing differing levels or impacts of disadvantage. We also include data that is not aligned in time, and therefore may be including metrics that describe disadvantage snapshots at different periods in the past, present, or future that may not be currently reflective of present disadvantage. We aggregate all these data sources to census tracts, as these are that most common area where data is reported, as well as being a statistical boundary where many policy decisions are made. For this reason, the results reported and displayed in the ETC Explorer tool are not generalizable to individuals and are meant to be high-level descriptions of community-level cumulative disadvantage only.

This is important because while the tool allows for better-informed community-level decision making, it may not be generalizable to all use cases or populations where the data may smooth levels of disadvantage. In other words, populations and individuals living in disadvantaged census tracts, may in fact not be cumulatively disadvantaged, and vice versa – those not living in disadvantaged tracts may be in fact disadvantaged in regard to many of the indicators utilized.

Methods

USDOT's methodology incorporates several methods to determine the overall score, including min-max scaling and percentile ranking. Normalization is a strength of the method as it allows for data standardization and eliminates the impact of different units of measurement, leading to consistent data comparison. The percentile ranking helps USDOT to understand the relative position of each component and overall score in relation to other census tracts, allowing them to design policies and programs that effectively address the needs of the most vulnerable communities.

However, there are some limitations to USDOT's methodology, such as the use of a single threshold (the 65th percentile) to determine whether a community is disadvantaged. Using hard cutoffs, like the 65th percentile, may over-simplify disadvantage definitions and underlying local realities, which is why USDOT includes deep dive on component scores and indicator values so that more localized understanding can be achieved. However, it is important to note that this threshold may not accurately reflect the unique needs and challenges of various communities, nor will it fully capture the complexities and nuances of the relationship between communities. While USDOT has added in the option to view data and see different percentiles, the cutoff remains at the 65th percentile. This statistical choice may be considered a limitation that could impact the interpretation of the results. Some local variation may be hidden due to the tool's design toward comparison at the national, regional, and state level. USDOT has aimed to retain as much granularity as the data and methods allow, but future research could benefit from considering alternative methods for defining disadvantaged communities, such as the use of multiple thresholds or indicator weights, to better reflect the unique needs and challenges of different communities across indicators.

Tool

USDOT's methodology is visualized using an ArcGIS dashboard, which provides users the ability to interact with the data, allowing for a more in-depth understanding of the results. This is a strength of the tool as it

allows for effective communication and collaboration between USDOT and stakeholders, making it easier to understand disadvantage.

However, there are some limitations to the ArcGIS dashboard. The tool may be limited by the data inputs and calculations used in USDOT's methodology. Additionally, the tool may not provide the ability to analyze and compare the results with other data sources, making it difficult to determine the reliability and validity of the results. In conclusion, while the ArcGIS dashboard is a useful tool for visualizing the results of USDOT's methodology, it should be used in conjunction with a critical evaluation of the data inputs, methods, and limitations of the methodology to ensure the accuracy and credibility of the results.

Appendix 1. Data Dictionary

The tables below represent the five main components of the ETC Explorer Index dataset. You can find more detail on data sources and calculations at <u>Justice40 Initiative | US Department of Transportation</u>.82

Table 3. Transportation Insecurity Indicators

| Component | Sub-component | Indicator Description | Units | Data Source | Geographic Granularity |
|----------------|----------------|----------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|------------------------|
| | | Percent of households with | | | |
| | | no car | Percent households | ACS 2016-2020 | Census Tract |
| | | Average commute time to | | | |
| | | work | Minutes | ACS 2016-2020 | Census Tract |
| | | Frequency of Transit | | EPA Smart Location Database | |
| | | Services per Sq Mi | Count/sq mi | 2021 | Census Block Group |
| | Transportation | | | EPA Smart Location Database | |
| | Access | Jobs within a 45-min Drive | Count | 2021 | Census Block Group |
| | | Estimated Average Drive | | | |
| | | Time to Points of Interest | | | |
| | | (min) | Minutes | Esri, HIFLD | Census Block Group |
| Transportation | | Estimated Average Walk | | | |
| Insecurity | | Time to Points of Interest | | | |
| | | (min) | Minutes | Esri, HIFLD | Census Block Group |
| | | Calculated average annual | | | |
| | | cost of Transportation as | Percent of household | | |
| | | percent of household | income towards | | |
| | | income | transportation | Calculated | Census Tract |
| | Transportation | Cost of Gas | U.S. Dollar (USD) | AAA 2022 | State |
| | Cost Burden | Cost of Transit | USD | NTD 2017-2021 | Urbanized Area |
| | | Time Value of Money | USD | USDOT BCA 2023[1] | National |
| | | Time to Work | Minutes | ACS 2016-2020 | Census Tract |
| | | Median Income | USD | ACS 2016-2020 | Census Tract |
| | | Vehicle Miles Traveled | Miles | BTS LATCH 2017 | Census Tract |

⁸² The sources are also linked within the references section.

| Component | Sub-component | Indicator Description | Units | Data Source | Geographic Granularity |
|----------------------------|----------------------------|-------------------------|-------|-----------------|------------------------|
| | T | Vehicle Finance Charges | USD | CES 2020-2021 | Census Division |
| Transportation Cost Burden | Transportation Cost Burden | Cost of Maintenance | USD | CES 2020-2021 | Census Division |
| Cost Baracii | cost barden | Insurance Costs | USD | CES 2020-20211 | Census Division |
| Transportation | Transportation | Traffic Fatalities per | | | |
| Safety | Safety | 100,000 people | Rate | NHTSA FARS 2020 | Point |

Table 4. Environmental Burden Indicators

| Component | Sub-component | Indicator Description | Units | Data Source | Geographic Granularity |
|---------------|-------------------|--------------------------------|----------------------|---------------------------------|------------------------|
| | | Ozone level in the air | Dobson Unit | EPA's EJScreen 2022 | Census Tract |
| | Air Pollution | Particulate Matter 2.5 | micrograms per cubic | | |
| | | (PM2.5) level in the air | meter | EPA's EJScreen 2022 | Census Tract |
| | | Diesel particulate matter | micrograms per cubic | | |
| | | level in air | meter | EPA's EJScreen 2022 | Census Tract |
| | | Air toxics cancer risk | Score | EPA's EJScreen 2022 | Census Tract |
| | | Percent of tract within 1 mile | | EPA's Facility Registry Service | |
| | | of known hazardous sites | Percent of area | (FRS) 2022 | Point |
| | | Percent of tract within 1 mile | | | |
| | | of known Toxics Release | | EPA's Facility Registry Service | |
| | | sites | Percent of area | (FRS) 2022 | Point |
| | | Percent of tract within 1 mile | | | |
| | Hazardous Sites | of known Treatment and | | EPA's Facility Registry Service | |
| | Tiazardous Sites | Disposal Facilities | Percent of area | (FRS) 2022 | Point |
| Environmental | | Percent of tract within 1 mile | | | |
| Burden | | of known Risk Management | | EPA's Facility Registry Service | |
| | | Plan Sites | Percent of area | (FRS) 2022 | Point |
| | | Percent of tract within 1 mile | | | |
| | | of non-abandoned Coal | | US DOL Mine Data Retrieval | |
| | | Mines | Percent of area | System 2022 | Point |
| | | Percent of tract within 1 mile | | | |
| | | of non-abandoned Lead | | US DOL Mine Data Retrieval | |
| | | Mines | Percent of area | System 2022 | Point |
| | | Percent of houses built | Percent of occupied | | |
| | | before 1980 | houses | ACS 2016-2020 | Census Tract |
| | | Percent of tract within 1 mile | | | |
| | Infrastructure | of high-volume roads | Percent of area | USDOT BTS 2022 | Line |
| | iiii asti actai c | Percent of tract within 1 mile | | | |
| | | of railways | Percent of area | USDOT BTS 2022 | Line |
| | | Percent of tract within 5 | | | |
| | | miles of airports | Percent of area | USDOT BTS 2022 | Point |

| Component | Sub-component | Indicator Description | Units | Data Source | Geographic Granularity |
|---------------|-----------------|------------------------------|-----------------|----------------|------------------------|
| | Infrastructure | Percent of tract within 3 | | | |
| Environmental | iiiiastiucture | miles of ports | Percent of area | USDOT BTS 2022 | Point |
| Burden | | Percent of tract that | | | |
| Buruen | Water Pollution | intersects with a Watershed | | | |
| | | containing impaired water(s) | Percent of area | EPA WSIO 2022 | HUC 12 Polygon |

Table 5. Health Vulnerability Indicators

| Component | Sub-component | Indicator Description | Units | Data Source | Geographic Granularity |
|-----------|---------------|-----------------------|---------------------|-----------------|------------------------|
| | | | Crude Prevalence (% | | |
| | | Asthma prevalence | of population) | CDC Places 2020 | Census Tract |
| | | | Crude Prevalence (% | | |
| | | Cancer prevalence | of population) | CDC Places 2020 | Census Tract |
| Hoolth W | /ulnorohility | High blood pressure | Crude Prevalence (% | | |
| neaith v | 'ulnerability | prevalence | of population) | CDC Places 2020 | Census Tract |
| | | | Crude Prevalence (% | | |
| | | Diabetes prevalence | of population) | CDC Places 2020 | Census Tract |
| | | Poor mental health | Crude Prevalence (% | | |
| | | prevalence | of population) | CDC Places 2020 | Census Tract |

Table 6. Social Vulnerability Indicators

| Component | Sub-component | Indicator Description | Units | Data Source | Geographic Granularity |
|-----------------|-----------------|--------------------------|---------|---------------|------------------------|
| | | Percent of population | | | |
| | | with Income below | | | |
| | | 200% of poverty level | Percent | ACS 2016-2020 | Census Tract |
| | | Percent of people age | | | |
| | | 25+ with less than a | | | |
| | | high school diploma | Percent | ACS 2016-2020 | Census Tract |
| | | Percent of people age | | | |
| | | 16+ unemployed | Percent | ACS 2016-2020 | Census Tract |
| | | Percent of total housing | | | |
| | | units that are renter- | | | |
| | Socioeconomic | occupied | Percent | ACS 2016-2020 | Census Tract |
| | Status | Percent of occupied | | | |
| | | houses that spend 30% | | | |
| | | or more of their income | | | |
| Social | | on housing with less | | | |
| Vulnerability | | than 75k income | Percent | ACS 2016-2020 | Census Tract |
| valificiability | | Percent of population | | | |
| | | uninsured | Percent | ACS 2016-2020 | Census Tract |
| | | Percent of households | | | |
| | | with no internet | | | |
| | | subscription | Percent | ACS 2016-2020 | Census Tract |
| | | GINI Index | Score | ACS 2016-2020 | Census Tract |
| | | Percent of population | | | |
| | | 65 years or older | Percent | ACS 2016-2020 | Census Tract |
| | | Percent of population | | | |
| | Household | 17 years or younger | Percent | ACS 2016-2020 | Census Tract |
| | Characteristics | Percent of population | | | |
| | Characteristics | with a disability | Percent | ACS 2016-2020 | Census Tract |
| | | Percent of population | | | |
| | | (age 5+) with limited | | | |
| | | English proficiency | Percent | ACS 2016-2020 | Census Tract |

| Component | Sub-component | Indicator Description | Units | Data Source | Geographic Granularity |
|-------------------------|------------------------------|--|---------|---------------|------------------------|
| Social Vulnerability | Household Characteristics | Percent of total housing units that are mobile | | | |
| - amerability | | homes | Percent | ACS 2016-2020 | Census Tract |

Table 7. Climate and Disaster Risk Burden Indicators

| Component | Sub-component | Indicator Description | Units | Data Source | Geographic Granularity |
|---------------|----------------|------------------------------|--------------|--------------------------------|------------------------|
| | Current Hazard | Estimated annualized loss | | FEMA National Risk Index (NRI) | |
| | Risk | due to disasters | Dollars | 2021 | Census Tract |
| | | Increase in number of days | | | |
| | | over 90 deg by mid- | | | |
| | | century | Days | DOI/NOAA CMRA 2022 | Census Tract |
| | | Number of days exceeding | | | |
| | | 99th percentile of | | | |
| Climate & | Future Climate | precipitation by mid- | | | |
| Disaster Risk | Risk | century | Days | DOI/NOAA CMRA 2022 | Census Tract |
| Burden | NISK | Percent change in number | | | |
| Burden | | of days with less than 0.01 | | | |
| | | inches of precipitation | Percent | DOI/NOAA CMRA 2022 | Census Tract |
| | | Percent of tract inundated | | | |
| | | by 0.5 sea level increase by | | | |
| | | 2100 | Percent area | DOI/NOAA CMRA 2022 | Census Tract |
| | Impervious | Average Percent Land | | | |
| | Surfaces | classified as Impervious | | | |
| | Juliaces | Surface per Tract | Percent | USGS MRLC NLCD 2019 | Raster |

Appendix 2. Missingness Table

The table below displays the missingness statistics of indicators included in the ETC Explorer index. This describes the level of missingness before contiguous-mean interpolation is applied.

Table 8. Missingness Statistics

| Indicator Description | # Missing Tracts (out of 85,508) | % Total Tracts with Data |
|--|----------------------------------|--------------------------|
| Census Tract FIPS Code (2020) | 0 | 100.00 |
| State ID | 0 | 100.00 |
| State Name | 0 | 100.00 |
| State Abbreviation | 0 | 100.00 |
| County Name | 0 | 100.00 |
| Location | 126 | 99.85 |
| Metropolitan Planning Organization (MPO) ID | 17465 | 79.50 |
| County ID | 126 | 99.85 |
| Alaska Indicator | 0 | 100.00 |
| Hawaii Indicator | 0 | 100.00 |
| U.S. Territory Indicator | 0 | 100.00 |
| Percent of Indicators with Complete Data | 0 | 100.00 |
| Total Population | 126 | 99.85 |
| Percent No Vehicle | 914 | 98.93 |
| Average Commute Time to Work | 1036 | 98.78 |
| EPA Walkability Index | 0 | 100.00 |
| Frequency of Transit Services per Sq Mi | 0 | 100.00 |
| Jobs 45-min Drive | 0 | 100.00 |
| Estimated Average Drive Time to Points of Interest (min) | 1173 | 98.62 |
| Estimated Average Walk Time to Points of Interest (min) | 1171 | 98.63 |
| Transportation Cost Burden | 2758 | 96.76 |
| Traffic Fatalities | 28637 | 66.38 |
| Ozone Level | 126 | 99.85 |
| PM 2.5 Level | 126 | 99.85 |
| Diesel PM Level | 126 | 99.85 |
| Air Toxics Cancer Risk | 126 | 99.85 |

| Indicator Description | # Missing Tracts (out of 85,508) | % Total Tracts with Data |
|---|----------------------------------|--------------------------|
| Hazardous Sites Proximity | 0 | 100.00 |
| Toxic Release Sites Proximity | 0 | 100.00 |
| Treatment & Disposal Facility Proximity | 0 | 100.00 |
| Risk Management Sites Proximity | 0 | 100.00 |
| Coal Mine Proximity | 0 | 100.00 |
| Lead Mine Proximity | 0 | 100.00 |
| Pre-1980s Housing | 893 | 98.95 |
| High-Volume Road Proximity | 0 | 100.00 |
| Railway Proximity | 0 | 100.00 |
| Airport Proximity | 0 | 100.00 |
| Port Proximity | 0 | 100.00 |
| Impaired Surface Water | 0 | 100.00 |
| Asthma Prevalence | 0 | 100.00 |
| Cancer Prevalence | 0 | 100.00 |
| High Blood Pressure Prevalence | 0 | 100.00 |
| Diabetes Prevalence | 0 | 100.00 |
| Poor Mental Health Prevalence | 0 | 100.00 |
| 200% Poverty Line | 666 | 99.22 |
| No HS Diploma | 1612 | 98.11 |
| Unemployment | 666 | 99.22 |
| House Tenure | 914 | 98.93 |
| Housing Cost Burden | 914 | 98.93 |
| Uninsured | 811 | 99.05 |
| Lack of Internet Access | 914 | 98.93 |
| GINI Income Inequality Index | 1001 | 98.82 |
| 65 or older | 666 | 99.22 |
| 17 or younger | 666 | 99.22 |
| Disability | 1734 | 97.96 |
| Limited English Proficiency | 666 | 99.22 |
| Mobile Homes | 893 | 98.95 |
| Annualized Disaster Losses | 0 | 100.00 |

| Indicator Description | # Missing Tracts (out of 85,508) | % Total Tracts with Data |
|---------------------------------------|----------------------------------|--------------------------|
| Extreme Heat Days Increase | 0 | 100.00 |
| Extreme Precipitation Days Increase | 0 | 100.00 |
| Drought Days Increase | 0 | 100.00 |
| Sea Level Rise Inundated Area | 0 | 100.00 |
| Impervious Surfaces (from Land Cover) | 1679 | 98.03 |

Appendix 3. POIs – Breakdown and Codes

Table 9. Breakdown of POIs

| POI Category | Code | Description |
|---|--------------|---|
| Constant Character The fellowing Codinit NAICC | NAICS 445110 | Supermarkets and Other Grocery (except Convenience) Stores |
| | SIC 541105 | Grocers-Retail |
| | SIC 541106 | Markets-Kosher |
| | SIC 541107 | Grocers-Ethnic Foods |
| Grocery Stores: The following 6-digit NAICS codes would be used to filter ESRI Business | SIC 541108 | Grocers-Health Foods |
| | SIC 541110 | Convenience Food Stores |
| Analyst datasets. These codes are further filtered down to SIC codes and remove irrelevant codes. | NAICS 445230 | Fruit and Vegetable Markets |
| | SIC 543101 | Fruits & Vegetables & Produce-Retail |
| | SIC 543102 | Farm Markets |
| | NAICS 452311 | Warehouse Clubs and Supercenters |
| | SIC 531110 | Wholesale Clubs |
| | NAICS 621111 | 621111 – Offices of Physicians |
| | SIC 801101 | 801101 – Physicians & Surgeons |
| | SIC 801116 | 801116 – Preventive Care |
| | SIC 801132 | 801132 – Health Screening & Vaccination Services |
| Medical Facilities: The 6-digit NAICS codes would | NAICS 621493 | 621493 – Freestanding Ambulatory Surgical and Emergency Centers |
| be used to filter ESRI Business Analyst datasets. | SIC 801104 | 801104 - Clinics |
| These codes are further filtered down to SIC | SIC 801105 | 801105 – Physicians & Surgeons-Emergency Services |
| codes. | SIC 801122 | 801122 – Ambulatory Surgical Centers, Anesthesiologist, etc. |
| | NAICS 622110 | 622110 – General Medical and Surgical Hospitals |
| | SIC 806201 | 806201 – Medical Centers |
| | SIC 806202 | 806202 – Hospitals |
| | SIC 806203 | 806203 – Emergency Medical & Surgical Services |
| | Business | Business and Secretarial Schools |
| Adult Education: The following categories of | Colleges | Colleges, Universities, and Professional Schools |
| HIFLD would be used to filter POIs. | Junior | Junior Colleges |
| | Other | Other Technical and Trade Schools |

| POI Category | Code | Description |
|---|------|------------------------|
| Parks: The following categories of HIFLD would be used to filter park POIs. | LP | Local Parks |
| | LREC | Local Recreation Areas |
| | PPRK | Private Parks |
| | SP | State Park |

Appendix 4. TIAT Indicators and Breakdown

Table 10. TIAT Indicators and Categories

| Category of Indicator | Indicator | Breakdown Presented in Tool ⁸³ |
|-----------------------|--|---|
| Urbanized Areas | Urbanized Areas | 2020 Urban Area with Population less than 50k, between 50k-200k, greater than 200k |
| Cost Burden Filters | Percent of Population at or Below 200% of the Federal Poverty Line | Less than 20%, between 20%-29.9%, between 30% and 39.9%, greater than 40% |
| | Median Household Income | Between \$0-42,731, between \$42,732-\$56,010, between \$72,321-\$98,194, greater than \$98,195 |
| | Transportation Cost Burden | Less than 15%, between 15%-19.9%, between 20% and 24.9%, between 25% and 29.9%, greater than 30% |
| | Estimated Cost of Transportation | Less than \$10,000, between \$10,000-\$10,999, between \$11,000-\$11,999, between \$12,000-\$12,999, between \$13,000-\$13,999, greater than \$14,000 |
| | Housing Cost Burden (Percent of Households Spending 30%+ of Income on Housing) | Less than 15%, between 15%-24.9%, between 25% and 34.9%, greater than 35% |
| | Estimate Households without Vehicles | Less than 50, 50-99, 100-149, 150-249, greater than 250 |
| | Transit Availability ⁸⁴ | No data reported, some transit, moderate transit, lots of transit |
| | Drive Time to Adult Education (minutes) ⁸⁵ | Less than 15 minutes, 15-29 minutes, 30-60 minutes, greater than 60 minutes |
| Access Burden Filters | Drive Time to Grocery Stores (minutes) | Less than 15 minutes, 15-29 minutes, 30-60 minutes, greater than 60 minutes |
| | Drive Time to Medical Facilities (minutes) | Less than 15 minutes, 15-29 minutes, 30-60 minutes, greater than 60 minutes |
| | Drive Time to Parks (minutes) | Less than 15 minutes, 15-29 minutes, 30-60 minutes, greater than 60 minutes |
| | Walk Time to Adulty Education (minutes) 86 | Less than 5 minutes, 5-14 minutes, 30-60 minutes, greater than 30 minutes |
| | Walk Time to Grocery Stores (minutes) | Less than 5 minutes, 5-14 minutes, 30-60 minutes, greater than 30 minutes |
| | Walk Time to Medical Facilities (minutes) | Less than 5 minutes, 5-14 minutes, 30-60 minutes, greater than 30 minutes |
| | Walk Time to Parks (minutes) | Less than 5 minutes, 5-14 minutes, 30-60 minutes, greater than 30 minutes |
| | Broadband Access Categories (% of | |
| | Households with No Internet) | Less than 5%, between 5%-14.9%, between 15%-24.9%, greater than 25% |

⁸³ Users are also able to set their own thresholds, but these are presented as options.

⁸⁴ Based on the quartile ranking of transit frequency per square mile reported by EPA Smart Location Database.

⁸⁵ Drive times were estimated by calculating the average drive time on a Tuesday at 8am from all block group centroids in a tract to the nearest two points of interest.

⁸⁶ Walk times were estimated by calculating the average walk time from all block group centroids in a tract to the nearest two points of interest.

| Catego | ory of Indicator | Indicator | Breakdown Presented in Tool ⁸⁷ |
|--------|------------------|-----------------------------------|---|
| Saf | Safety Filters | Motorist Fatalities ⁸⁸ | Zero, Low, Average, Above Average, High |
| Sal | | NonMotorist Fatalities | Zero, Low, Average, Above Average, High |

Users are also able to set their own thresholds, but these are presented as options
 Fatalities are based on the 2017-2021 fatality analysis report system data and categorized by quintiles of per 100k person rates

References

Datasets⁸⁹

- U.S. Department of Commerce
 - o U.S. National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
 - Climate Mapping for Resilience and Adaptation 2022
 - o U.S. Census Bureau
 - American Community Survey (ACS) 2015-2020
 - Longitudinal Employer-Household Dynamics 2017
 - Census Tracts 2015-2020
- U.S. Department of Transportation
 - o U.S. Bureau of Transportation Statistics
 - Geospatial at BTS 2022
 - Local Area Transportation Characteristics for Households Data 2017
 - Office of the Secretary
 - Benefit Cost Analysis Guidance 2023
 - National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA)
 - Fatality Analysis Reporting System (FARS) 2020
 - Federal Transit Administration
 - US National Transit Database (NTD) 2017-2021
- U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA)
 - Environmental Justice (EJ) Screen 2022
 - Watershed Index Online (WSIO) 2022
 - EPA's Facility Registry Service (FRS) 2022
 - EPA Smart Location Database 2021
- U.S. Energy Information Administration
 - o Weekly Retail Gasoline and Diesel Prices
- U.S. Department of Labor (DOL)
 - U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics
 - Consumer Expenditure Survey 2020-2021
 - o U.S. Mine Safety and Health Administration

⁸⁹ R packages "tidycensus" and "tigris" were used to assist in data gathering for the index.

- Mine Data Retrieval System (MDRS) 2022
- U.S. Department of Health and Human Services
 - o U.S. Centers for Disease Control (CDC)
 - PLACES Local Data for Better Health 2020
- U.S. Department of Homeland Security
 - o Cybersecurity & Infrastructure Security Agency
 - Homeland Infrastructure Foundation-Level Data 2022
 - o Federal Emergency Management Agency
 - National Risk Index for Natural Hazards 2021
- U.S. Department of the Interior
 - o U.S. Geological Survey, Multi-Resolution Land Characteristics Consortium (MRLC)
 - National Land Cover Database (NLCD) Impervious Products 2019